

THE  
**ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.**

(NEW SERIES.)

● COMPRISING ORIGINAL REVIEWS, BIOGRAPHY, ANALYTICAL AB-  
STRACTS OF NEW PUBLICATIONS, TRANSLATIONS FROM FRENCH  
JOURNALS, AND SELECTIONS FROM THE MOST ESTEEMED BRITISH  
REVIEWS.

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VOL. I. NO. IV. APRIL, 1820.

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PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY JAMES MAXWELL,  
S. E. CORNER OF WALNUT AND FOURTH STREETS.

1820.





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ART. I.—*Sketches of an Excursion from Edinburgh to Dublin.*

(Continued.)

THERE is a pain which attends the separating from a fellow countryman in a foreign land, which, though at times modified and reduced by connecting circumstances, can never weigh lightly on a bosom of common sensibility. Simply an identity in the land of their birth, however remote therein may be the places of their abode from each other, is sufficient at a distance to attach individuals in ties of close fellowship, who else, if mutually brought into the society of each other, would be contented with a cold and formal intercourse. A disunion moreover of such a connection would be followed by regrets, which it would be difficult to subdue, however they might be disguised; but where, as is sometimes the case, separation takes place from a companion united to another, not conventionally, but by the intimacies of a tried and lengthened regard, the aching heart bears testimony to the void which is produced, and experiences a sensation of loneliness, which it can neither repress nor define. Such was the state of feeling with which I yesterday bade adieu to \* \* \* \*. Returning from Dawson street where we had parted, I retraced my steps to my lodgings, in a mood which was any thing but cheerful. Though surrounded as I was aware, by friends, new indeed, but who testified every desire to contribute to

my enjoyment, I could not divest myself of a sense of solitariness. I experienced in fine, the *maladie du pays* in its full force, and thought that I could then rightly appreciate the feelings of one whose doom it may be to wear out his days in a distant land, in involuntary exile. There was something in the state of the atmosphere around, which rather served to augment, than to allay the gloom which oppressed me. It wanted an elasticity; and there was a density in it, such as is common in the evenings of a New England November, and which, in the present instance added to the indistinctness of twilight, and gave to each passing countenance, an expression which conveyed the belief, that it was the index of feelings different perhaps in kind, but no ways inferior in intensity to those which I was experiencing. I know not whether expositors are agreed in the nature of that 'evil spirit,' which is related to have afflicted Saul, and which was happily charmed away by the minstrelsy of David. Be the opinion what it may, it is not improbable, I conceive, that a person, from causes of which he is wholly guiltless, may labour at times under a morbid temperament, not unlike in its *effects*, that which was experienced by the royal sufferer, and which may yield to the kindly influence of a similar remedy. At any rate, I was resolved to make trial of the application, and on my return, recollecting to have heard that the race of the ancient Irish harpers was not wholly extinct, and that one or two were still to be met with in the city, I despatched a servant immediately on the search. An hour or more had elapsed, and I was beginning to despair of his success, when a noise upon the staircase, and subsequently along the passage leading to my apartments, induced me to apprehend, that the 'bards of an hundred harps' were approaching, and that no less than the court of Brien, with the chieftain's ghostly self were coming on the 'rustling blast,' to regale upon the song of former years, and listen to the voice of their praise. The door was opened, and two men entered bearing a harp, the



form and size of which showed plainly enough that it was of no Irish origin, and had never sounded in the halls of Tara, however it might in those of Lewellyn. The harper came next, supporting himself by a staff with his right hand, and leaning upon the arm of one of the house servants with the other. A stripling of an interesting appearance followed, who, from his age and countenance, I supposed was his grandson. Behind these, at some distance, were two or three of the family household, who were drawn after by motives of curiosity. Though far from expecting the Welsh harp, and particularly with such a convoy, I had little leisure to ruminate on the disappointment. The harper himself soon arrested my attention, and produced an impression which can never be erased. His appearance throughout, was prepossessing and venerable. Though his countenance was much furrowed, it retained a benignant expression; and his person was tall and commanding, notwithstanding a slight inclination, the effect of his years. What remained of his hair, which was almost white with age, was collected behind, and hung loosely upon his shoulders. His dress was *comme il faut*; in other words, sufficiently singular to be in *keeping*. But the interest which was inspired by his general appearance, was heightened by perceiving that whatever might be his joy in the 'light of the song,' he mourned the extinction of the visual ray, and that at least in fate, if not in renown, he claimed kindred with

Blind Thamyras, and blind Mœonides  
And Tiresias and Phineus, prophets old.

Being led to a seat, and having paused a little to recover breath, he commenced putting his instrument in order, and at the same time returned replies to the inquiries which I made, in a manner which still further awakened sympathy. He was from Wales, he said, and a native of Anglesea. In early life he was deprived of his sight, and obliged, by con-

sequence, to resort for a livelihood to his present occupation.\* Finding himself at length neglected in common with his few other associates, he resolved on crossing the channel, in the hope of bettering his condition by pursuing his calling among a people of kindlier feelings. He had been in this city a number of years, and had met with encouragement, though that, he said, had declined. 'I can remember,' he added, 'when the harper was every where received with a welcome, and found a ready home. But times have changed, and I too have changed. I feel the chills of age increasing daily upon me, and I fear that there will be little seeming cause of wonder at my declining estimation, should any past skill which I may have possessed, be judged of from my present efforts.' I assured him, that he wronged me if he thought that I was not already sufficiently interested to admire any trials on his instrument; and to his inquiry if there were any airs which I would propose, he was gratified by my replying that his own native music would be preferable, although I wished him to consult his own taste in the particular selection. While his hand passed over the strings and touched a hasty

\* The case of many who when deprived of vision, enjoy a peculiar refinement in the sense of hearing as well as touch, cannot have failed to strike the most casual observer. Any one who has resided in a large city, may probably bring to mind some professed musician, blind either from birth, or by some casualty in life. Milton, who has recorded his own calamity in immortal verse, had an ear not more delicately perceptive of the harmony of numbers, than attuned to the nicest melody of sounds. It was his morning's recreation, either to listen to, or bear a part in various exercises of music, in the science of which he greatly excelled. Carolan, the famous Irish musician, was blind. His name in connection with this fact, recalls a circumstance which the writer omitted to mention in its proper place. In the chapel of the castle, he saw a sculptured head of this musician on the front of the organ loft, with a note book before it, although, as is well known, he was *born* blind. This blunder, which might be regarded whimsical enough in any place, may be termed in reference to its Hibernian origin, an architectural *Bull*.



symphony, I endeavoured to define the impression which the unlooked for appearance of a figure so extraordinary had excited. He seemed to belong to an earlier age, and to represent the bard of Fingal or some kindred minstrel. His song I felt assured must be that of other times; and while my memory reverted to that description of Ossian,—‘Night closed around; Carril struck the harp, his gray hair glittering in the beam,’—I was prepared to respond to the call of some viewless spirit, ‘Son of Alpin strike the string and let the voice of music arise. I stand in the cloud of years; few are its openings towards the past, and when the vision comes, it is but dim and dark; but I hear thee, harp of Cona! my soul returns like a breeze which the sun brings back to the vale where dwelt the lazy mist.’ However high my expectations of the harper’s skill had been raised, and however much his appearance had prepossessed me, I was no ways disappointed by what followed. As the tones which he waked struck upon his ear, his frame seemed to feel an inspiring energy, and his countenance to beam with the fire which kindled in his bosom. His hand forgot the palsy of age, and ‘swept the sounding chords,’ with a boldness and freedom, combined with a delicacy and correctness, which proved that he was still capable of sustaining the honours of minstrelsy, and that, though last, he was not least in the line of Cambrian Bards. I had heard this instrument repeatedly played before, but never with an effect comparable to the present. The harper was as willing to prolong its tones, as I was to enjoy them; and after an entertainment of two hours, which succeeded not merely in chasing *my own* gloom, but in communicating a kindred satisfaction to many others, he concluded, at my desire, with the national air, ‘of noble race was Shenkin,’ an air, which, to my taste, unites within its short compass, all the sweetness and all the majesty of song.

I was happy a few days ago, in forming an acquaintance with Mr. R. a junior fellow in the university, and a gentle-

man of extraordinary acquirements. At the early age of fourteen, he published a volume of poems which possess no inconsiderable merit, notwithstanding their being the production of a mind so juvenile. Six years afterwards, he was elected to his present office which was a flattering distinction, as vacancies in these fellowships are supplied out of many competitors who undergo very rigorous public examinations. These examinations are often prolonged through three days, and of course require a thorough preparation. Mr. R., though scarcely 23 years of age, has since amply fulfilled the expectations which were formed by the early expansion of his genius, and the singular precocity of his reputation.

Breakfasting at his rooms this morning, I had the pleasure to meet two or three other very intelligent gentlemen, who hold fellowships in trinity college. The whole number of these livings in the university, is twenty-two; seven senior, and fifteen junior. The salaries of the senior fellows are large; varying from 7 to £900 sterling. Those of most of the junior are as low as £120 and even £100; but then they have the prospect of rising to the higher form by right of eldership, and they receive in the meanwhile a large part of the avails from tuition. Besides these fellowships, the university has three medical professorships, and five which it owes to royal munificence in the several departments of divinity, common law, civil law, materia medica and Greek. There are also professors of mathematics, natural philosophy, botany, rhetoric and the oriental tongues.

The course of discipline and instruction in Trinity college, is modelled after the habits of the English universities. The students are divided into three ranks, fellow-commoners, pensioners and sizers. The latter are supported, or receive assistance in an eleemosynary manner chiefly, though, in return, they perform some slight services, such as are required of the poorer scholars in some American colleges. Each student on entering the university, has the liberty of choosing whether



he will be a fellow-commoner, or a pensioner. If the former, his necessary expenses are nearly doubled. He sits, indeed, at the same table in the hall with the fellows, and enjoys a few other privileges; but as each student on becoming a member of the university is obliged to enter his name with one of the junior fellows in order to pursue his studies under his direction, the fellow-commoner, if the individual chooses to become one, is charged about as much again as the pensioner; that is to say, about £30 annually to the officer, instead of 15 or £16. And this is but one item in the increased expenditure. Sons of noblemen, and of the richer and more distinguished gentry, become fellow-commoners, but the pensioners, as might be supposed, constitute the great body of the students. Evening tea and breakfast, are taken both by fellows and pupils in their respective rooms, but dinner is served up in the refectory, or public hall. It is common with the junior fellows to complain of the burden of their duties, and they look forward with considerable impatience to the period when with their office they may enjoy *otium cum dignitate*; or rather to transpose the phrase, *dignitatem cum otio*. But they are subjected to a grievance, of which some are disposed more loudly to complain, although, perhaps, it is but a fair offset for the comforts attendant upon an academic living. By a monastic provision in the college statutes, a fellow in the university is doomed to a life of celibacy, unless a special dispensation from the inhibition is procured from the king.

It was gratifying to me, to take a still nearer view than I had yet obtained of the manners of the Dublin literati, and this I enjoyed at the dinner table of the provost, in the evening. The Rev. gentleman had requested my company, with a view, as he politely intimated, of making me acquainted with a few men of letters, whom he proposed bringing together for the occasion. Thirty or more guests were assembled, among whom were the most prominent characters con-

nected with the university, and also several eminent city savans. Conversation was dignified, but tempered with a proper degree of freedom. It had nothing of that buckram which is often found to mark both the conversation and manners of those, who, devoted to sedentary and contemplative pursuits, prefer a life of seclusion to that collision with the world, which tends to brighten what is solid, and give currency to what is valuable. If my opportunities for forming an estimate of the polite, as well as intellectual society of Dublin had been confined to the present, the result could not have failed to be in the highest degree favourable. I recollect, before my arrival here, to have heard a friend in a panegyric upon the country, pronounce an Irish gentleman to be a finished gentleman. How far this opinion was founded upon an amiable but undue partiality consequent upon a cordial reception which he had himself experienced, I had then to learn. The result in my own mind has since been, that the belief was in no respect erroneous. The polished inhabitant of Dublin has all that high-toned refinement of manners, which characterises the gentry of the same rank, in the English and Scotch capitals; and from a constitutional warmth and frankness of feeling, superadds an urbanity to his courtesies which oftentimes the stranger, in vain looks for among them. Of the guests who were assembled at the provosts, there were gentlemen who to their other information, added the observations which they had made by foreign travel; and I was not disappointed in finding that while they had thereby shaken off every undue local prejudice, they cherished an unabated, nay it would seem, a stronger attachment towards the land of their birth.

It would be reasonable to expect that the university should partake much of this pride, which respects the country generally; but a stranger, at least an American, might be surprised on learning the estimation in which it is actually held. In solid science, Trinity college professes to yield to no uni-



versity in the three kingdoms, excepting Cambridge; and with that it aspires, at no distant day, to cope successfully. Less however is known of it in America, I am inclined to think, than of the British universities; and even the English scholars have affected, till of late, a sadduceism in respect to its claims. But leaving to other hands the decision of these, I would just remark in passing, that the investiture of the gown, is by no means thought to preclude the wearer from the privilege, of blending with the pursuits of pure learning, the science of good living. The provost's table presented a luxurious display of viands, and the glasses, as they briskly circulated, sparkled with wines of 'ruby' brightness, and rarest excellence. The guests who returned to the drawing room did not separate till a late hour, and it was nearly one before they all took leave. Sir Richard Musgrave was the magnet. His vivid wit and various anecdote render him the delight of the circles which he frequents; and on the present occasion, some favourite recollections being awakened, he threw around him the fine sallies of his humour with an effect which was irresistibly amusing.\*

\* The writer of these notices may be pardoned for here expressing a passing acknowledgment for the attentions which he received from this gentleman during his stay in Dublin and for the remembrance with which he subsequently honoured him. Sir Richard, though then in the vigor of health and usefulness, lived but about ten months after, and fell a victim to the typhus fever in its destructive march through Ireland. He possessed a mind of strong native powers, which had been greatly strengthened by culture and exercise; but at the same time, he inherited an impetuosity of feeling, which occasionally hurried him beyond the bounds of strict prudence, particularly on political ground. As a citizen, notwithstanding, he was eminently useful, and rendered important services to government. Nor did any political predilections ever cause him to swerve from what he conceived to be the path of duty. His opponents never dared to arraign the purity of his motives; and in the various offices which he sustained, all parties did homage to his commanding talents, and his stern and unbending integrity.

The Dublin hours of dining, are immoderately late. The four and five o'clock habits of north Britain were sufficiently unreasonable, at least according to my plain Yankee notions; but the good citizens of Dublin prefer to follow more closely the Westminster standard: six, half past six, and seven are usual hours of appointment on cards; and I have sat down to dinner as late as eight.

I should be unwilling to omit subjoining in this place, a remarkable instance of the benefits resulting to the community from a judicious employment of the poor, accompanied with a suitable attention to their morals, which has been evidenced by Thos. Nowland, Esq. of Kilkenny. This gentleman having recently put into operation in that county, a very extensive woollen manufactory, has endeavoured to improve to the utmost, the condition of those whom he employs; and to ascertain whether the establishment, instead of proving a bane to morals, might not be rendered a nursery of correct and exemplary habits. The buildings are so arranged as to admit and secure an entire separation of the sexes; the apprentices, besides receiving gratuitously a suitable school education, are presented with the needful elementary books, as well as others of an excellent moral tendency; and to guard against the evils which are often occasioned by the fluctuations incident to their employment, they are instructed in the use of the implements of husbandry, and taught to combine thereby, the healthful habits of the peasant with the skill and aptitude of the manufacturer. The benefits which were contemplated have been happily realized, and their influence has extended beyond the immediate neighbourhood. 'Thus,' says the humane and enterprising proprietor, (I quote his words from a sketch of the history of the establishment, which he presented to the Dublin society of arts, and a copy of which, with an engraved view of the buildings, he obligingly presented to me.) 'Thus have peace and civilization been diffused around it; an idle, poor and ignorant race, have



been converted into an industrious, educated and moral people; and in securing the happiness of above 300 individuals, its immediate objects, it has thrown a shield over the persons and property of all within the sphere of its influence and enabled them, though within a few miles of a disturbed district, to sleep secure *without lock or bolt.*

But to return from these remarks to the incidents of my narrative; there is a singular vehicle used in this city called a car, and another little less singular, though rather more comfortable, termed a jingle. They have no tops, and are drawn by one horse. The former has a square body swung low, without any sides, and having two seats which are placed in the middle, and disposed lengthwise. These seats accommodate three passengers; who are obliged to sit back to back, with their sides, instead of their faces, towards the horse. The latter vehicle resembles somewhat the body of a common coach, with the top off; and the seats being placed at the sides, allow the passengers to sit face to face, although with the same awkward position towards the horse, as in the other case. The jingle is a good sort of sociable enough, but unmercifully capacious in respect to the poor beast who is to draw it. The car, on the other hand, or to give it its whole appellation, the jaunting car, is much cheaper, and consequently in more general use. I was desirous, from curiosity, to try the motion of this vehicle; its uncouth appearance in passing, having more than once drawn a smile from me. Walking yesterday with capt. \* \* \* \* of the navy, towards a friend's house, I incidentally mentioned the thought. '*Allons donc;*' said he, 'we will make the trial together.' I confess, I did not think that he would have closed with the suggestion quite so readily; however acceding, I deviated with him to a turn in the street, not far from a station on which we saw two of these machines, and their drivers in the most pacific mood possible, stretched upon the pavement near them. Our distant call brought them along

side of their jaded horses, but not till after a furious scramble, of which their parti-coloured apparel had most reason to complain, coming off as usual, second best. Plying their whips and running along side, they then urged the poor animals into a sort of half gallop towards the place where we were waiting; but in point of fleetness, it was easy to see that their masters greatly outdid them. Not content too, with pushing his own beast, honest Pat had an eye to his neighbour's, and while he lashed here, he counterlashed there, and this kind office being reciprocated, we had begun to apprehend on the principle of opposite forces, that their luckless steeds would be soon brought to a stand; but a smart stroke being applied by one of them across the forehead of the horse of his rival, the ire of the latter rose to a towering height, and disdaining to avenge himself upon a less object, he coiled his whip with tremendous effect about the legs of his comrade, and leaving him to recover as well as he might from this *coup-de-grace*, made another effort to reach our ground and succeeded.

The drapery of Pat when he came up, was well worthy of inspection. The coat looked truly venerable, and with its many scars of many similar contests, showed like a tattered banner in St. Paul's. It had suffered so severely in this latter engagement, from a rent having found its way from the division of the skirts to the cape, that it would, without fail, have called forth our sympathies but for Pat's coolly remarking, that it had parted in the same place the week before, and doubtless, we thought, more than once before that. We were soon in the crazy vehicle, and Pat was on his stand, although hardly on his seat. Guiding the reins with one hand, and flourishing the other towards his foiled antagonist in the rear, he dealt out a rhodomontade with 'arraah, and whip Peg, will you? och, by my shoul, but i'll crack a shillala upon your drum head when I get back, my honey, wont I? aye, and every mudder's son like you, blood and ounds but I will



though.' But his rhetoric, notwithstanding reiteration, was unhappily lost upon the other, who had better employment than listening; and as long as the vehicle was in sight, pursued it with a similar billingsgate rejoinder, marvellously to our satisfaction. Friend Pat in the meanwhile drove on, despite of our remonstrance, with all attainable speed; the car occasionally giving us a jolt which the ribs of Peg could scarcely have withstood. At length it was intimated, that as no terms had been made, it was at our option to pay him by the *time*. Immediately Pat recollected that his beast had been drove 'owr hard' in the morning, and 'wa'ant it a pity if their honors wa'ant in no haste to drive a poor *cratur* to death for nothing.' Peg understanding the hint, soon trudged in a provokingly slow pace. 'Why Pat,' we both spoke as we were going up a slight ascent, when the animal once or twice seemed actually asleep, 'why Pat, you do not call this a hill?' 'Och, your honors, but I dont call it a *hollow*;' and such was the spirit of all his replies. Proceeding with this hearse-like march, along Stephen's green, where the gallant captain has many friends, our humble equipage did not prevent several fair hands from being waved, accompanied however with a smile and look of inquiry; but neither of us had cause to regret our arrival at the place of debarkation. Pat received for the passage, just double the legal fare; but hoping to better the account, wished 'their honors' to consider the *time* that had been spent; and had'nt he lost opportunities therefore to drive other jontilmen,' and '*fath* he could'nt *tak* the four ten-pennies.' My friend glancing significantly, requested a return of the money, which was readily given back in the hope of an increase. Pocketing it however, he was proceeding deliberately up the steps, when Pat timed a suitable acknowledgment, and receiving 'nothing loth,' the ten-pennies, mounted his car, and drove back to settle the point of honour with his comrade.

The corrupt use of language in pronunciation, for which this country is so noted, that even the dogs have been said to *bark* in a *brogue*, is not a little grating to a stranger's ear, until familiarised by use. It is sensibly worse than the *yeow* and other Joe Bunkerisms of New England, but after all it is not quite so bad as I had been led to imagine. It is decidedly preferable in my opinion to the broad Scotch, and most of the provincial dialects in England; and this which is true of the lower orders, is remarkable the higher the parallel is carried. The better classes of Dublin have little of the Hibernian sibboleth; and its men of letters speak the English language with even Oxonian purity. Their organs of utterance are as flexible as those of the Londoners, and they enjoy this advantage over them, at least over the cockneys of Bow Bell, that without any of their clipt, mincing pronunciation, they bring their words out full and well coined. The citizens of Edinburgh, on the other hand, have a muffled tone of voice; and they articulate in such a trotting, up and down cadence, that an English ear is half the time puzzled to know whether they are *serious*.

The Irish have a great vivacity in conversation, and are distinguished, as is well known, for a fondness of metaphor and a quickness of illustration. Various instances of the latter peculiarity are present to my mind, although it is sufficient to mention only one. Being with a mixed party at a friend's house the other day, conversation turned upon the probable effects of the redundant population of the sister isle, and particularly of that enormous mass concentrated in London. 'England,' said one, 'I conceive to be valetudinarian. She is an hydrocephalous subject; and the peccant humours which are collected in London as its *head*, will, ere long, prove the destruction of the whole body politic.' 'You are not quite right there,' rejoined another, 'it is no morbid action. England remains as sound as ever. But she is not rightly burdened; a sailor would call her *crank*. In a word,



she is top-heavy; and depend upon it, London is the *head which will sink the nation.*'

I have before taken occasion to hazard an opinion upon the *soi-disant* beauty of the Irish women. From the general sentiment as then advanced, I have found no cause hitherto to dissent; although I am free to say, that I have paid a willing homage to a few signal exceptions to its truth. The remark however, was in no respect intended to touch upon the accomplishments in mind or manners of the Dublin fair, for the fascinations of these, a stranger cannot fail at first glance, to acknowledge and admire. To-day, too, in a circle at the solicitor-general's, I met with ladies who, for beauty of countenance and person, not only reflect a brilliancy upon the Emerald Isle, but would grace the splendours of any Parisian coterie. The lady of the S. G. is herself distinguished for the elegance of her appearance, and combines a finished refinement of manners with the reported endowments of an exalted mind. The evening amusements of the drawing room were interspersed with music on the piano and harp, in the execution of which, great skill and taste were displayed.

But I must not forget to mention a gratification which I have experienced, in hearing the tones of the true Irish harp. The Welsh performer who had so greatly interested me, informed me that he knew of one who played that instrument in this city, and that whenever I should wish it, he would procure his attendance. In the course of this morning, I accordingly sent to have him produced. His harp was about one half the size of the common pedal harp, and one third of that of the Welsh. It was strung with wire instead of catgut, as is the latter, and this gave its tones a sharper, indeed, somewhat a shrill sound. The music nevertheless was good, and struck my fancy very much. It was heightened perhaps by association; the airs which were selected being native Irish, and they embraced the best of Tom Moore's melodies, not forgetting the 'harp that once through Tara's

halls,' and the 'glories' of brave Brian. The appearance of the harper was very little *a-la-mode*. He was a plain, prose-like looking being; but of civil manners and address. He was born in Ulster, somewhere in the neighbourhood of Belfast, and had come to *Dublin* with an associate who now shares with him the gains and honours of minstrelsy.

*May 1st.*—This is May-day, but Dublin has exhibited few of those festivities which used to mark the occasion, and which are still kept up in many parts of England. The most that I have seen out of the common course is the grotesque appearance of the chimney-sweeps. This is a holyday to them, and well it would be for the sake of humanity if they had the first day of every month. They deck themselves on the present occasion with figured paper-caps and ornaments, and patrol the side walks soliciting season pence from every passenger. Usquebaugh, perhaps, has flowed rather more copiously than usual; and Pat accordingly has been in his element. Passing near several tap-rooms, my ear was regaled by the melody of that lyre of all nations, the fiddle, whilst Teague was keeping time to the chorus with a 'nate little bit of a tid-re-i.'

The Foundling hospital established here, is a most humane institution. I had hitherto deferred a visit to it, but should have regretted deeply to have left the city without seeing it. The measures which are adopted by the managers of this hospital for the preservation of children, undoubtedly rescue annually a large number from death. It has been usual for a cradle to be kept constantly at the gate for the reception of those exposed, that parents might be deterred from the crime of infanticide, either through inability to give them support, or a desire to avoid a detection of their shame. The institution is supported solely by the inhabitants of Dublin, although infants are brought to it from all parts of the kingdom. A tax of £10,000 yearly is collected for this purpose from the city and liberties, which is raised chiefly by an assessment of one shilling in the



pound on each house. The children who are admitted into the establishment average one hundred and eighty a month; but a mortality of one fourth for the same period has not been unfrequent. The hospital itself accommodates one thousand, and five thousand more are with country nurses. They are all at a suitable age instructed in reading and writing and the principles of the protestant faith, after which they are apprenticed.

In the nursery there is a clock which was presented by a titled lady some forty or fifty years ago, but coupled with an inscription which runs in the following serio-comico phraseology, 'For the benefit of infants,—*Lady Arabella Denny* presents this clock to mark, that as children who are fed by the spoon must have but a small quantity of food at a time, it must be offered frequently. For which purpose this clock strikes every twenty minutes, at which notice all the infants that are *not asleep* must be *discreetly* fed.'

A friend accompanied me to *Feinagle's* school, and *Christ church*. As the regulations of the former of these are generally known by the many reports which are before the public, and the intimations given in the art of memory, a description here is unnecessary. The institution, it may be added, has thus far fulfilled expectation and redeemed the pledge of the projector. The arrangements and course of discipline, nevertheless, struck me as needlessly complex and artificial.

*Christ church*—to use a strong figure—is the *Westminster Abbey* of *Dublin*; but the actual resemblance is very imperfect. It is an ancient edifice of little grandeur and less beauty, and was founded as early as the commencement of the eleventh century. It has undergone few alterations since, except on the south side of the nave, the walls of which fell down in the year 1562. This accident injured severely a monument to earl *Strongbow*—'the fyrst and pryncipall invader of Irland 1169, gvi obiit 1177,'—as an inscription states; and happened under the viceroyalty of

THE: RIGHT: HONORABLE: T: ERL:  
OF: SVSSEX: L: LEVTNT:

The monument is a curious piece of old statuary, representing the earl in armour, with *part* of a female figure at his side, both lying extended on a block of stone. It is difficult to convey to an American an accurate conception of these AVNCYENT specimens of sculpture. In cathedrals and abbey churches they are generally found in the side aisles, or between the pillars, or in the chapels and cloisters which adjoin the main structure. The ashes of those they commemorate are under the pavement somewhere, but not always very near, the location of the monument above being a point of most consequence. Sometimes the deceased is represented in a recumbent position upon the top of a raised slab, with the hands closed on the breast, as in the act of praying; the whole being sculptured from a mass of stone, and presenting a lugubrious spectacle; looking as *natural*, that is, as much like a human form as the outer casing of an Egyptian mummy. Not unfrequently a pair, decked in their bridal apparel, are so exhibited, and occasionally a whole family group. If the deceased be a prelate, he is found kneeling in his pontificals and mitre, though not in the most *melting* mood; whilst the warrior is seen reclining on his arms, with an aspect grim as that of Gog and Magog of Guidhall memory, or the redoubtable Jack the jiant killer. In St. Patrick's cathedral I remember to have seen a curious whole length statue of Michael Tregury, formerly metropolitan of Dublin. The venerable primate is exhibited in flowing robes with a crosier in his hand; and an angel is made fast to his side by rings on his fingers.

But there is another piece of singular statuary which just now occurring to my mind, I mention to introduce an account of some repairs which it underwent by a hand not generally deemed the most plastic, which may thence convey an idea of the beauties to be looked for in these monumental antiquities.



In an old church in the town of Truro, in Cornwall, there is a large massive monument which is erected to the memory of John Roberts, Esq., who died in 1614. It was originally decorated with several figures, and having fallen into decay was a few years since repaired by orders of Miss \* \* \* \*, of Lanradick, a descendant of the family. When it was finished the mason presented an account, of which the following is a literal copy; 'To putting one new foot to Mr. John Roberts, mending the other, putting seven new buttons to his coat, and a new string to his breeches'-knees: to two new feet to his wife Philips, mending her eyes, and putting a new nosegay into her hand: to two new hands and a new nose to the captain: to two new hands to his wife, and putting a new cuff to her gown: to making and fixing two new wings on Time's shoulders, making a new great-toe, mending the handle to his sithe, and putting a new blade to it;'—all of which items are severally drawn out and balanced by pounds, shillings, and pence.

Mr. John Roberts, designated by the 'new string to his breeches'-knees,' is in a reclining posture, with an open prayer book before him, whilst his lady is lying very comfortably on her side, with the 'new nosegay,' in her hand, as specified in the mason's bill. The 'seven new buttons' are plainly distinguishable, and the captain's 'new nose' and the 'two new feet to his wife Philips,' are now happily, in excellent order. Time, also, with his 'two new wings,' and 'new great-toe,' and sithe handle, looks as blithesome and fresh as any May-day chimney-sweep.

(*To be Continued.*)

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ART. II.—*Essay on Architectural Monuments.*

Totus sepulturæ locus est contemnendus in nobis, non negligendus in nostris. Vita enim mortuorum in memoria vivorum est posita. *Cicero.*

To cherish the recollection of those who have lived an ornament and benefit to the world, or a delight to their more

immediate connexions, is not only a duty we owe to their memory, but an advantage to ourselves. We indulge in admiration of the character exalted by great public virtues, and dwell with melancholy pleasure upon the remembrance of those, who wound themselves round our affections, and were endeared to us in the domestic circle. Clinging to their remains, we follow them to the grave, and when the first violent emotions of sorrow have subsided, we wish to perpetuate these feelings of admiration and affection, by some lasting memento of their worth. For this purpose, the funeral monument has been invented, as the most appropriate and durable method of recording our sentiments. No custom has been more generally adopted than the erection of these testimonies of the living to the dead; through every gradation, from the simple, unpretending stone of the retired country church yard, to the magnificent mausoleum of departed royalty. Though the gaudy splendour sometimes displayed in the design, and the extravagance of the epitaphs, by giving the character of ostentation, and a feeble attempt to bestow an earthly grandeur upon what is fleeting and transitory, often defeat their object; yet the judicious use of monuments is not destitute of advantage. It perpetuates the name and virtues of the deceased, it fills the bosom of the living with generous and noble sentiments, engenders and diffuses the generous affections, softens the heart, and creates amenity towards the living, and not unfrequently gives rise to useful and serious reflections. ‘When looking upon the tomb of the great, every emotion of envy dies within us; when we read the epitaphs of the beautiful, every inordinate desire goes out; when we meet with the grief of parents on a tomb stone, our hearts melt with compassion; when we see the tomb of the parents themselves, we consider the vanity of grieving for those whom they must quickly follow. When we see kings lying by those who deposed them; when we consider rival wits placed side by side, or the holy men that divided the



world with their contests and disputes, we reflect with sorrow and astonishment on the little competitions, factions, and debates of mankind; when we read the several dates of the tombs; of some that died yesterday, and some six hundred years ago, we consider that great day, when all of us will be contemporaries, and make our appearance together.' Since the commencement of the world, near six thousand years have gone by; millions of our fellow-beings have passed away as a dream, like the troubled waters of the ocean, wave succeeds wave, and is soon lost for ever amid the boundless swell. Among this countless number, many useful and great men have risen above the surface, and their characters remain a conspicuous guide to those who follow. Where virtue in peace, and bravery in war have marked the conduct of an individual, his actions become interesting, his fame is the property of succeeding generations, his name worthy of immortality. The muse forbids the virtuous man to die, and the arts should unite to prolong his memory. He who has rendered himself eminent or useful—he that daring for his country or his friends to die, has signalized himself in arms, and broken the bondage of tyranny—enlarged the circle of human knowledge—distinguished himself in letters, and delighted the world by the rich effusions of genius—increased the benefits of society by the formation of salutary laws, and discharged the duties of a good and useful citizen—extended the power and grandeur of his country by his talents as a warrior, and his wisdom as a legislator, deserves that his name be recorded in a public and durable manner. In the more limited walks of domestic life, where virtue has been practised, and the useful and innocent pleasures of social intercourse have been promoted, some eulogium of these qualities should be recorded; for though 'the storied urn or animated bust, cannot, back to its mansion call the fleeting breath,' nor 'honours' voice provoke the silent dust, or flattery sooth the dull, cold ear of death,' yet we who survive

draw some consolation from the sepulchral marble, making it in a measure speak of our esteem and love, and, at a distant interval revive our dormant affections.

From the earliest ages there has been a desire to preserve the remembrance of departed greatness, and the virtues of ancient heroes have been retained and delivered to us by monuments. In the erection of these, the ancients displayed a magnificence and liberality unknown in modern days. Before the art of printing was known, or that of painting much used, various methods were adopted, to retain, not only the character, but the corporeal form. The Egyptians, believing that the soul, susceptible of a higher degree of enjoyment, remained, even after death, attached to the body, as long as that could be continued entire; applied all their art to secure this frail substance from corruption, and from the violence of the living. Carrying the art they had discovered, to the greatest perfection, they were enabled to preserve the body for ages, and it became the usual practice among the wealthy to have their deceased relatives embalmed, depositing them, in their secure and strong catacombs, or placing them in niches in some magnificent apartment of the house. These catacombs, cut into the solid rocks, are visited at this remote period by travellers, and stone coffins found in them.\*

The most ancient mausoleum of which we have any description, is that of Osymandias, the 8d king of Egypt, who flourished four thousand years since; it was of uncommon magnificence, encompassed with a circle of gold a cubit in breadth, and three hundred and sixty-five in circumference, showing the rising and setting of the sun and planets; the

\* Many of the Egyptian mummies are now exhibited as curiosities, in a perfect state of preservation. A large and very ancient Egyptian sarcophagus or stone coffin of black granite, carved with hieroglyphical figures, is in the British museum. It was carried to London from Cairo, where the Turks had used it as a cistern, which they called the 'lover's fountain.'



spectator was at a loss whether to admire most the richness of the materials, or the industry and genius of the artists.\*

Of all the works of the Egyptians, there are none more remarkable than the obelisks, which have excited the admiration of travellers, and the wonder of the philosopher and the naturalist—They were pyramidal spires, composed of one entire stone, cut with hieroglyphics, and erected to convey to posterity the fame and power of their founders—Sesostris, who reigned 3300 years since, raised two, each of which was of one piece of granite, 180 feet high; the side of the square base 30 feet; one of these was transported to Rome by Augustus, and placed in the Campus Martius. The son of Sesostris raised one which was taken to Rome by Caligula. But none of these were equal in size to that erected near Heliopolis by Ramesses, who reigned 3000 years since; it is the most valuable monument which now remains of Egyptian antiquity. It was respected by Cambyzes when he put all to fire and sword, ordering the flames of the city to be extinguished, when he saw them approaching the obelisk—Constantine transported it to Rome, and placed it in the circus, it there fell and was broken, but the care of pope Sixtus V, repaired and restored it.

From the apparent impossibility of cutting such an enormous block from any quarry, the Egyptians were supposed to have discovered the secret of melting stone, or of incorporating smaller stones into a solid mass capable of polish and strength; but the absurdity of these conjectures is apparent, from the quality of the stone which is not fusible, and all doubt is removed by respectable travellers having examined the quarries, and seen the matrices from whence they were cut. The largest are in fact made of red granite, and the smaller of porphyry both of which abounded in Egypt.

\* This description is accurately given by several of the early historians: how much of fable may be blended with the account, we do not pretend to conjecture.

The celebrated pyramids, found in no part of the world except Egypt, are ascertained by the general opinion of historians, confirmed by the repeated examinations of modern travellers, to have been monumental sepulchres of the early kings of Egypt. Herodotus supposes the one which was opened at his time, and is generally examined by travellers, to have been built, as a tomb for his family, by Cheops who flourished three thousand years since and exhausted his immense treasures in building it. A desire to secure their bodies from the expected outrage of their oppressed subjects, and to transmit their names to remote generations, led to the erection of these solid edifices. Nothing of a more durable character can be raised, as the pyramid, being the most solid figure, and admitting of no way of destroying it, but by beginning at the top, resists the ravages of time and the depredations of man. These beautiful and stupendous edifices, with a bold grandeur, overlooking the surrounding country, have been justly ranked among the wonders of the world, and far surpass in extent and solidity any modern structure. Of their object and origin we have no correct traditional account, and it is only known that they have existed from the remotest antiquity, before the times of the earliest profane historians whose works we possess. A long period was occupied in preparing the materials and in forming them into this huge mass, and even the time of their commencement was unknown when the first Greek philosopher travelled into Egypt, yet they are built on such an immense scale and with so much care and labour, that they remain at this day unimpaired. The grandeur of the pyramids, the oppression and discontent produced by their erection, and the proud will of the cruel despot, whose fame they were intended to immortalize, are finely and impressively described by the poet, where Busris, after recounting the antiquity, the splendor and wealth of Memphis and the unlimited power of his empire, proceeds:—



To crown the whole, this rising pyramid  
Lengthens in air and ends among the stars:  
While every other object shrinks beneath  
Its mighty shade and lessens to the view,  
As kings compared to me,  
These forlorn rebels are loud, that while my heavy hand,  
Presses whole millions with incessant toil  
In building wonders for the world to gaze at;  
Weeds are their food, their cup the muddy Nile,  
Do they not build for me! let that reward them.  
Yes, I will build more wonders to be gaz'd at,  
And temper all my cement with their blood.  
That I have liv'd, I'll leave a mark behind,  
Shall pluck the shining age from vulgar time,  
And give it whole to late posterity:  
My name is writ in mighty characters.  
Triumphant columns and eternal domes,  
Whose splendour heightens our Egyptian day,  
Whose strength shall laugh at time, till their great basis,  
Old earth itself shall fail; In after ages,  
Who war or build, shall build or war from me.\*

\* The magnitude of these works is so extraordinary, that we find it difficult to realize the subject, and were it not for the undoubted testimony of the historians, confirmed by the repeated examinations of modern travellers; those who have not seen these wonderful specimens of the labour and ingenuity of the ancients, might be incredulous as to their actual size and existence. Throughout Egypt, and particularly in the desert of Sacara, are many pyramids, but the three most remarkable, on account of their antiquity, towering height, and excellent workmanship, are those of Gizah, erected on the borders of the Nile, nearly opposite to Grand Cairo. The rich territory that surrounds them, was the original Elysian fields, and the canals intersecting them, the Styx and Lethe of ancient fable, names afterwards adopted by the Greeks, and appropriated to similar places in Arcadia. The pyramids of Gizah, at the distance of nine miles, appear like huge pointed rocks, cap't with clouds, and the spectator, when he has attained the summit, beholds a landscape which cannot be surpassed in its variety, magnificence, and awful sublimity. As history gives us no positive account of the period in which they were built, much is left to conjecture. From their not being noticed by Homer, the president Goguet supposes they were not erected at his time, and assigns about fifty years

In Greece, those who had been rendered illustrious by their genius and abilities, were not only crowned with civick honours during their life, but had monuments erected to their memory, upon their decease. In passing through this posterity after him as the time of their construction. But I am rather disposed to give full credit to the account of Herodotus and place them at a much earlier period, perhaps, at least, five hundred years before Homer flourished; Herodotus is the first historian who gives any account of them. He travelled into Egypt, measured them himself, and obtained a particular description of the method of raising them and the machines used. The correctness of this venerable father of history has often been questioned by inaccurate readers who have mistaken what he often relates, as the tradition of the times, for facts advanced upon his own authority, but from his writings it appears that he was as little biassed by the prevailing superstition of that age, as we could reasonably expect, and he no doubt was an accurate observer, a profound philosopher, and a man of truth.

The pyramid in architecture is either a solid or hollow figure terminating in a point at the top, formed in direct lines from the exterior of the base, and the base may be square, triangular, or polygonal. In geometry, agreeably to Euclid's definition, it is a solid figure, consisting of several triangles whose bases are all in the same plane and have one common vertex. Of the three Egyptian pyramids, the bases were square and the dimensions of the largest were, according to

	<i>Perpendicular height. Each side of the base.</i>	
Herodotus, who measured it about 2300		
years since, - - - - -	800	800 feet.
Diodorus Strabo Pliny, - - - - 1850	625	700
Modern travellers, - - - - -	600	700

And Herodotus states that the base covered eight plethrae, and Pliny agrees with him in giving the base eight acres.

They were built on the solid rock, and constructed of stones thirty feet long, four high, and three broad, wrought with great art and cut with hieroglyphics. Each upper stone, resting upon a part of the one below, was placed so much within as to form two hundred and eight layers of about four feet each, or a regular flight of steps; each tier when finished affording facility to the raising of the stones, and placing the machines, and so in succession they reached the utmost summit, which, though it appeared from below, owing to its great height, as a sharp point was truncated, and presented a square platform of seventeen feet each side, or two hundred and eighty-nine square feet area. The difference between the ancient and modern



lished nation, the traveller found himself surrounded by the statues of heroes, and was constantly reminded of the most remarkable events of their history; the art of sculpture shone with splendour, and the skill of Phidiais and Praxiteles,

measurement is accounted for from the immense pile of stones and rubbish, covered by the sands of Libya, which have accumulated in the course of ages, against the base, as Strabo relates that at his time, the stone which closed the entrance was half way up the pyramid, and now it is only one hundred feet from the present base, which would make the reduction in height about two hundred feet, and in the base proportionally, bringing Herodotus's measurement to agree with the modern. Therefore, following Herodotus, we shall be near the truth in fixing the

Original perpendicular height at	-	-	-	-	-	800 feet
Each side of the square base at	-	-	-	-	-	800
The fronts were equilateral triangles, therefore,						
the superficies or area of the base would be	-	-	-	-	-	640,000 sq. ft.
The circumference	do.	-	-	-	-	3,200 ft.
The top was truncated having each side of the base	-	-	-	-	-	17
The part truncated was in height	-	-	-	-	-	17
The area of the platform on the top	-	-	-	-	-	289 sq. ft.
The solid content of the truncated part would have been	-	-	-	-	-	1734 cubic ft.
The solid content of the whole pyramid, if carried to the extreme point, without being truncated, would have been						
	-	-	-	-	-	174,372,134 do.
The solid content of the frustrum or pyramid as now built, truncated at top, is						
	-	-	-	-	-	174,370,400 do.

Rollin, in his *Ancient History*, and Goguet, in his *Origin of Laws*, have given us only a part of the above calculations, and as the data I have taken are different and greater, the results exceed theirs considerably.

The whole exterior surface of the pyramids was coated with polished marble, which, from the depredations of the Arabs has now mostly disappeared. Ten years were occupied in making the causeways to convey the materials and in hewing the stone, twenty more in completing the building, and one hundred thousand labourers employed at the same time, who were relieved every three months. Sixteen hundred talents of silver or eight hundred and forty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars expended in vegetables for the workmen. The one which is now examined by travellers, was effectually opened by the Arabian government in the

bestowing life upon the Parian marble of exquisite texture and whiteness, adorned their temples and public walks with inimitable specimens of their art. The Grecian *Σαρκοφάγος*, sarcophagus, in which the body was inclosed, was made of

eighth century after great labour and expense, in the hope of getting treasure, but they found only some idols, a few Egyptian vases, and in the highest apartment, a stone coffin (which still remains) containing a mummy of a king, which proved the pyramid, from the inscription, to have been used as a mausoleum of the Egyptian Pharoahs, as Herodotus and Strabo had long before recorded. The pyramid contains long narrow passages, galleries, chambers, a great hall the roof of which is supported by huge pillars, and a deep well going to the very foundation supposed to be connected with subterraneous passages. It has been supposed they were intended as observatories for philosophical and astronomical observations, as repositories for corn when famine was apprehended, as temples in honour of the Deity, as altars dedicated to the sun. But the generally received opinion is, that they were intended as mausoleums for the kings who built them, to which purpose, after all, they were not applied, as from the universal detestation of their memories, it is said, their bodies were buried obscurely and secretly in some other place, though it would appear that at least the body of one was deposited there, and probably to secure it the idea was publicly held out that he was buried elsewhere. Among the various conjectures I have not observed one that has occurred, and may derive some force from examining their construction, viz. that they were intended as a precaution against the return of the great deluge or any extraordinary flood from the periodical rising of the Nile; not as a place of refuge for the royal family and dependents, being for this not calculated, either from their size or interior arrangement, but as a secure depository for the most valuable part of their treasures.

Any description of these stupendous works conveys but an inadequate idea of their magnitude, and the best way of forming a view of their size is to bring it home to the eye by a comparison with objects that are familiar to us. Upon the above data, the base of the pyramid covered a space of 640,000 square feet, and the squares into which the plot of our city is divided, though various, are on an average 400 feet each side presenting an area of 160,000 square feet. The pyramid is 800 feet high, and the steeple of Christ-church is 175 feet.

The pyramid then is four and one-half times the height of the steeple and covers an extent of ground equal to four of our squares, or nearly fifteen acres.



stone possessing the peculiar property of consuming animal substance, as the name indicates; they were large, of beautiful architecture, and much embellished with sculptured ornaments, and many of them, according to Savary and other travellers, are now found in perfect order amidst the ruin of cities, statues, and temples. The Romans at first adopted from the Egyptians, the custom of interring the body in catacombs, and afterwards borrowed from the Greeks the practice of burning and collecting the ashes of the dead. For this purpose, they encircled the body in a robe or winding sheet of asbestos, or amianthus, a mineral stone wove into cloth, which resisting the action of fire, retained the ashes pure and uncontaminated; these were collected with pious care, deposited in urns and placed in sepulchres, or in some favourite apartment of their dwellings. Rome, amidst the splendour and elegance of her public buildings, possessed numerous monuments of her great men, and were the records of her history to be obliterated for ever, the exploits of her Cæsars and Adrians, the virtues of her Trajans, her Antonines, her Vespasians, would still be known. The ancient Caledonians though in a rude and barbarous state, always celebrated the funeral rites over their deceased heroes, and placed monuments on the grave, which though rude, marked their veneration for the spot; believing that the souls of the valiant wandered restless and unsatisfied, unless the song of the bard was struck and the tomb raised. ‘ Wide-skirted comes down the foe, a beam of joy comes on my soul; I see them mighty before me. It is when the foe is feeble, that the sighs of Fingal are heard, lest death should come without renown, and darkness dwell on his tomb. Let my name be renowned and the bards shall lighten my rising soul. Take the bards and raise a tomb. To night let Connal dwell within his narrow house. Let not the soul of the valiant wander on the winds. Faint glimmers the moon on Moilena; raise stones beneath its beams, to all the fallen in the war. Though no chiefs were

they, yet their hands were strong in fight. They were my rock in danger; the mountain from which I spread my eagle wings. Hence am I renowned. Thus spake the hero Fingal at the battle of Moilena, where Connal fell, and loud, at once, from the hundred bards, rose the song of the tomb.'

In Russia and Siberia, many of the ancient sepulchres are perfect tumuli of great extent and height, and in America are mounds of immense size, the tombs of the early savages; some of which, having been opened, are found to contain interesting specimens of antiquity, and when further explored by the inquisitive traveller, may throw much light upon the now obscure origin of the aborigines of this country. The durability of the monument recommends it as a mean of conveying to succeeding generations, the knowledge of memorable actions and occurrences. Where time or accident has often destroyed the records of written history, the imperishable monument of stone remains uninjured, and like the medals of antiquity, is produced to corroborate the doubtful page of the historian. The history of the early kings of Egypt is lost in fable, and the capital of their empire, Thebes 'the city of Jove,' covering an extent of twenty-seven miles, is now no more. Of the great city of Memphis not a vestige remains, its beautiful temples have disappeared, the ruins of its fallen grandeur have adorned the palaces of Alexandria, and its former site is now planted with corn and date trees; yet the pyramids of Egypt, erected in the vicinity, and probably about the time that the city was at its greatest splendor, are still entire and may remain so as long as the world endures, though the account of their object and origin is known no more.

The ancient palace of the kings of Persia, called the house of Darius, once a superb edifice, is now a magnificent pile of ruins, whilst many of the tombs of their earliest kings built on a great scale, with their columns and ornaments, remain perfect. Sir John Chardin, visited at Sava, the celebrated tomb of Samuel, over which is erected a fine mausoleum in



the middle of the mosque, to which the Persians go in pilgrimage. At Kom, he saw the mausoleum of the two last kings of Persia, and that of Fatima, daughter of Mahomet, than which nothing could be more rich or magnificent, the door to each being plated with silver and the tombs surrounded with grates of the same metal; to that of Fatima, the Persians give the title 'Massuma' or pure, and hold it in great veneration. Near Shiraz is also the monument of Sadi, one of the most celebrated of the Persian poets. Maundrell and Shaw visited in Syria and the Holy land the sepulchres of Joseph, Jehosaphat, and Zachary, the tomb of Ananias, the pillar of Absalom, and saw splendid triumphal arches supported by Corinthian columns, and many stone coffins with beautiful decorations of busts and foliage uninjured by time, whilst Tyre was a barren spot, for fishermen to dry their nets on, and Palmyra, once the residence of Zenobia, queen of the east, and Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis or city of the sun, exhibited only the ruins of the boldest specimens of architecture that ever existed.

In Palestine, according to Dr. Clarke, at Sichem the modern Napalose, the tombs of Joseph and Joshua still remain, as everlasting as the solid rocks in which they were hewn, and coincide with the passage of the scriptures 'the bones of Joseph, which the children of Israel brought up out of Egypt, buried they in Sichem.' The veneration paid in all ages by Jews, Christians, and Mahometans, has preserved the authenticity of their situation; lapse of time and the convulsions of nature have had no effect upon them, and they continue as perfect to this day as when first completed. Though the church of the Holy sepulchre is now destroyed, the tomb of our Saviour, over which it was erected, still remains; devout pilgrims may yet approach the consecrated shrine and overcome with holy and awful feelings, pour forth their pious aspirations. Scepticism has attempted to throw a doubt upon the authenticity of the spot where the body of our Saviour

was interred, and the odious character of blind superstition has been ascribed to those who venerated the holy relic; but from the time of the ascension, the same place has been held sacred; devout believers had constantly frequented the tomb, from the days of the apostles until the fourth century, when the emperor Constantine having strengthened his throne by the adoption of the christian religion, ordered a magnificent church to be erected on the spot, under the direction of his pious mother Helena. Dr. Clarke does not suppose this to be the true sepulchre, but the ingenious and learned Chateaubriand, who visited it in 1806, a short time before the destruction of the church by fire, incontestibly proves, in an able memoir, by a series of historic evidence, which none but the incredulous would reject, that this is the genuine sepulchre of our Saviour. And the elegant historian Gibbon, who cannot be accused of a superstitious reverence for the prejudices of religion, in describing the condition of Jerusalem after the conquest of Titus, says, 'the Jewish temples were destroyed, a ploughshare was drawn over the ground. Sion was deserted; the holy places were polluted with monuments of idolatry; and either from design or accident, a temple was dedicated to Venus, on the spot which had been sanctified by the death and resurrection of Christ. Almost three hundred years after these events, the profane temple of Venus was demolished by order of Constantine; and the removal of the earth and stones, revealed the Holy Sepulchre to the eyes of mankind. A magnificent church was erected on the mystic ground, by the first christian emperor; and the effects of his pious munificence were extended to every spot, which had been consecrated by the footsteps of patriarchs, of prophets, and of the Son of God. The passionate desire of contemplating the original monuments of the redemption, attracted to Jerusalem a successive crowd of pilgrims from the shores of the Atlantic ocean, and the most distant countries of the east; and the christian who knelt before the Holy Sepulchre,



ascribed his lively faith and his fervent devotion, to the more immediate influence of the divine spirit.' *Rom. Emp.* After the death of Constantine, his nephew, the apostate, Julian, reviving the edicts of Adrian, and attempting to destroy the monuments erected by christian piety and to restore the pagan temples, approached Jerusalem, and his army from afar viewed the walls of the holy city, which were profaned in their eyes by the triumph of the cross, and the devotion of the christians. He artfully associated the Jews with him, by holding out the prospect of rebuilding their temple, whose restoration was secretly connected with the ruin of the christian establishments; but the joint efforts of power and enthusiasm were unsuccessful. Heaven itself seemed to counteract their endeavours; convulsions of nature opposed their attempts, earthquakes, whirlwinds, and fire overthrew their newly erected temples, and the death of Julian soon put an end to the measures of this persecutor of the christians. In the succeeding reigns the christian power was restored, and obtained an easy and lasting victory; and though Jerusalem was afterwards possessed by the Saracens and Turks, until wrested from them by the intrepid heroes of christianity, the chivalrous crusaders; yet the spots sacred to christians have always been kept holy and unprofaned since the power of the pagans was extirpated.

Sailing through the Hellespont to the Ægean sea, amidst the sublime scenery of Tenedos and Mount Ida, the delighted traveller stored with Grecian lore and elevated by the view of scenes consecrated by history and the bold achievements of ancient heroes, beholds near Sigeum the tombs of Achilles and Patroclus, and afar off at the foot of cape Rhœtus the tomb of Ajax. The prediction of the prophetic poet is verified, and the imagination is carried back through a lapse of three thousand years, to the moment,

When all the sons of warlike Greece surround  
The destin'd tomb and cast a mighty mound:

High on the shore the growing hill they raise,  
 That wide the extended Hellespont surveys;  
 Where all, from age to age, who pass the coast  
 May point Achilles' tomb, and hail the mighty ghost.\*

*Pope's Homer's Odys. b. 24th.*

A veneration for these celebrated tombs, hallowed by their antiquity, has preserved them free from the ravages of time and the rude hand of the barbarian, though the empire against which the heroes warred, long since was rent from its old foundations, and even the ruins of Troy are now no more. The wars of Troy, and the sublime poem of Homer have been termed a fiction; that they are not founded on fable, these monuments, where travellers in all ages have poured forth the tribute of their homage, remain a lasting testimony. Sages and heroes who have visited these mementos of ancient glory have confessed the inspiration of the place. At the tomb of Achilles, Homer poured forth his enthusiastic admiration of great and sublime virtues; and standing on the sacred spot, invoked the ashes of his mighty hero, received the inspiration of his character, and threw it glowing with poetic fire into his immortal lines. There the young aspiring hero of Macedon, paid his vows to the illustrious shade, anointed with oil the venerated pillar, and call-

\* It may be remarked that Cowper's translation of Homer, though not possessing the sweetness and melody, or the many exquisite beauties of Pope's, is perhaps throughout more nervous, more true to the author, and has more of the spirit of the original, as may be observed by comparing the above passage.

Around both urns we piled a noble tomb,  
 (We warriors of the sacred Argive host,)  
 On a tall promontory shooting far  
 Into the spacious Hellespont, that all  
 Who live and who shall yet be born, may view  
 Thy record, even from the distant waves.

*Cowper.*

Homer says nothing about the 'mighty ghost' introduced by Pope to make up the harmony of his rhyme, and Cowper has judiciously arranged his lines without it.



ing upon the manes of the departed warrior, exclaimed with sublime rapture, 'Oh Achilles! thou wert happy in thy glorious life! happy in such a friend as Patroclus! happy in such a poet as Homer, to immortalize thy memory!' M.

(To be continued.)

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ART. III.—*Notes on the Missouri River, and some of the Native Tribes in its Neighbourhood.*—By a Military Gentleman attached to the Yellow Stone Expedition in 18 9.

THE force destined to form military establishments on the Missouri, consists of the 6th regiment of infantry, and the 1st rifle regiment; these troops were concentrated in the neighbourhood of St. Louis, early in the month of June.

The eclat of the expedition was increased by the novelty of having part of the transportation for the troops, and provisions up the Missouri, to consist of four large steam-boats, belonging to the contractor. The success of the expedition was not however entirely dependant upon the result of this experiment in steam navigation; preparations were made in anticipation of its failure. Attached also to the expedition was a small steam boat belonging to the government, for the accommodation of the scientific men who accompanied it; it was intended to have drawn but very little water, and have moved with uncommon velocity.

Our present advanced post is at the Isle Aux Vaches, seventy miles beyond Fort Osage, forty from the junction of the Kanes, and about four hundred from the mouth of the Missouri; to this point the troops will move in detachment; from there they must be embodied.

The appearance of the Missouri at its junction with the Mississippi, is dark and gloomy, no settlements are to be seen to break the uniform forlorn aspect of its shores, and its turbid, yellow water, rushes turmoiled through a channel choaked with sand-bars, and filled with trunks of trees, whose tops projecting above the water seem posted like sentinels to

forbid the approach of navigation; its current overwhelms that of the Mississippi, whose limpid stream endeavours in vain to avoid the conjunction—at certain seasons a union of the waters does not take place until they reach below St. Louis, and so convinced are the inhabitants of this town of the superior salubrity of the Missouri water, that on these occasions they go a considerable distance to obtain it for domestic uses.

Belle Fontaine is eighteen miles up the Missouri; it was formerly a military post, and is still a depot for ordnance and other military equipments. An instance of the encroachment of the river upon its banks is evident at this place; the main channel now flows, where in 1806 the fort stood, and the garden which was two hundred paces in rear of the fort, is now on the verge of the river; the bank is not unfrequently washed away from one to three hundred yards in a few seasons; this is a serious objection to the formation of settlements on the rich bottoms upon the immediate margin of the river.

St. Charles, thirty-six miles from the mouth of the river, is one of the early French establishments in this country; at the period of Lewis and Clarke's expedition, it was our most remote western settlement; since that time it has considerably increased. The change of government in 1803 appears to have been but little relished by the inhabitants of Upper Louisiana. They speak with respect and affection of the mild and equitable rule of the Spanish colonial government, which exacted nothing from them in the shape of taxes, but required a tacit acquiescence in the orders, and a respectful deportment towards the persons of their superiors, and to be ready to render their military services whenever necessary, and to interfere in no shape, in the administration of the government. Under such institutions, the value of civil privileges was entirely lost sight of, and so little did they appreciate what we consider inestimable rights, that they regarded the



trouble of elections and the labour of occasionally judging for themselves as grievous impositions; with that wonderful pliability of temper, however, for which Frenchmen are remarkable, they have accommodated themselves to their new government and countrymen with the same facility as they did to the native Indians, with whom they were first associated.

The emigrants to this country are principally from the states of Kentucky, Tennessee and Virginia.

The current of the Missouri is rapid; immense piles of drift wood accumulate upon points or sand-bars round which the water flows with redoubled velocity; these impediments, together with the immense number of sand bars and trees planted every where in the channels render the navigation extremely difficult.

The country on the Missouri, is more healthy than that on the Ohio, Mississippi, or any other of the western waters. The current of the Missouri, confined to a deep and narrow channel is nowhere sluggish; no aquatic vegetables are generated in the space between its high and its low state of water, the decay of which in other rivers produces pestilential miasmata; the dryness also of the immense prairies by which it is surrounded, and, above all, the circumstance that this river never overflows its banks, contribute to produce this superior salubrity. The Ohio rises sixty feet perpendicularly from its lowest stages of water; the Missouri not more than ten to twelve—in conversing with emigrants from the banks of the Ohio, they all agree that here their families are more healthy; they remark also that they are less troubled with rust and mould, and that liquids lose more by evaporation here than where they formerly resided, owing doubtless to that purity and dryness of the atmosphere which preserves also the body from disease.

The absence of moisture, however it may contribute to the health, will be a serious obstacle to the agricultural prosperity of the country; no inconvenience is now felt, because the set-

tlements are confined to the immediate vicinity of the water courses.

On the Missouri there is a tract of country that may average twenty miles on the north, and ten on its south side, and extends as high as La Platte river, which for fertility of soil, convenience to a market, timber and salubrity of climate is not surpassed or perhaps equalled by any in the western world. Beyond these limits however is a country extending to the Rocky Mountains, of a thin meagre soil, destitute of timber and of water, and opposing insuperable barriers to the rapid progress of a white population; and although occasional spots of good land and timber may be found on the Kanzas and La Platte, and other rivers, yet they are very insignificant compared with the whole body of the country, and the impossibility of navigating those streams will exclude from a distant market, any produce that may be raised there. On this narrow strip of good land upon the Missouri, our settlements are rapidly progressing, leaving upon both their flanks, numerous and warlike bands of Indians inhabiting these immense prairies over which they move with a velocity that will elude the pursuit of any white troops. Already have these settlements passed the Osages and Kanzas on the south, and the Sacs and Jaws on the north. Hostility with any of these tribes would expose this narrow strip of frontier to the most distressing and irremediable devastations.

Franklin is now a flourishing town with a thousand inhabitants situated one hundred and twenty miles beyond the residence of any civilized man in 1809. Settlements now extend up to fort Osage one hundred miles beyond Franklin.

At the distance of ninety miles south of fort Osage, live the great Osage tribe of Indians. The proper name of this nation is the *Wash Shash*, the French traders have given them the name of Osages.



They are divided into three bands.

The Chawees or Arkansaw tribe residing on the	
Arkansaw river counts about	550 warriors.
The great Osage tribe reside on the Osage River	400
The Little Osage tribe living on the Nec Ozho	250
	<hr/>
	1200
	<hr/>

The bands by which this confederacy are held together, consist exclusively in their attachment to national glory, no authority is exercised by one tribe over another, nor do any assemblages, occur for general purposes. But a participation, in wars appear always to take place as well from necessity as choice. The Little Osages separated from the Great Osages about one hundred years ago, and moved to the Missouri river, they were however so sorely pressed by their enemies that they begged permission to return, and now reside within six miles of the Great Osage village. The Arkansaw schism was effected in about 1796, and there is reason to believe that the other villages will join the Arkansaw, rather than the Arkansaw return to its ancient residence, inasmuch as the Great and Little Osages are obliged to hunt every winter on the Arkansaw, and the nations they are least afraid of, reside westward of that river and it is from thence they get all their horses.

Their government is oligarchical, but still partakes of the nature of a republic, for although the power is nominally vested in a small number of chiefs, yet no measure of importance is ever decided upon, without the consent of the majority of the nation.

The chiefs are hereditary in most instances, yet there are many men who have risen to more influence than those of illustrious ancestry, by their activity and boldness in war; and the usurpations upon this nominal hereditary right are so frequent, that almost every man in the nation can boast that the supreme power was at one time vested in some of his family. When the regular heir is too young, the power is assumed by

his uncle, or next nearest relation; this is now the case with the Little Osages, their chief died some time since, leaving a young child, the power was assumed by the uncle, who still holds it, and will probably not be dispossessed during his life.

The Osages in their hunting excursions rove over a vast extent of country, comprising the head waters of the White, St. Francis, Merrimach, Gasconade, the whole of the Osage river and its branches, the middle region of the Arkansaw, and the southernmost branches of the Kanes, far the greater part of this immense tract is prairie. Sometimes they hunt even beyond the Arkansaw, and their war excursions often extend to the waters of Red river and to the north-west branches of La Platte. But their war and hunting excursions are more limited than they were a few years ago, and are yearly growing less extensive.

Their agriculture is very limited and probably has been the same for one hundred years; corn, beans, pumpkins, and melons are all they raise. These are planted early in May, at some spot near their village; they remain at their village until about the 25th of the month, when they hoe their corn, and leave it for their summer's hunt on the plains after buffalo. They do not return until the corn begins to ripen in August, and as soon as they have gathered it, they start again on their winter hunt.

The Osages procure deer, beaver, otter, muskrat, and buffalo skins, these they exchange for blankets, guns, kettles, beads, and paint, either at the trading-house near their village, or at the United States factory at fort Osage; residing, as they do, so far south, their furs are not very valuable.

These people have been noted for their uncommon stature, and they are undoubtedly somewhat above the common size of men; this probably is to be attributed to their living plentifully in a very healthy country, the constant exercise of hunting, the frequent removal of their camps, and from being cleanly in their persons, and making free use of the bath.



The Osages appear to have emigrated from the north-west, as they speak very nearly the same language as the Kanes, Ottoes, Missouris, and Mahaws, there is also great similarity of manners. The Osages by parting from these tribes, and leaving the Missouri river escaped the small-pox and their mortal enemies the Sioux; they have, however, fallen into the hands of the Iowas, Sacs, Kickapoos, Cherokees, Caddoes, and Tetars, with several or with all of whom they have since been at war. They are now at war with the Pawnees, Ottoes, and Cherokees, and are on the most friendly terms with their neighbours the Kanes.

At their councils or debates on subjects of national concern, as going to war, making peace, selecting hunting grounds, &c., the greatest order and decorum is preserved, the chiefs, warriors, and other distinguished men, alone speak on these occasions; the question is discussed with great freedom; if a chief happen not to be a good speaker he generally employs an orator to deliver his sentiments.

Polygamy is allowed among all Indian tribes. An Indian takes as many wives as he is able to support, of his capacity to do so the parents of the woman are the judges, and the affair is exclusively managed through their medium. Female virtue is much prized among the Osages, and the women are extremely guarded in this respect. No people in the world can have a more horrid repugnance to an incestuous intercourse, cousins are forbidden to marry.

It appears to be the general opinion of traders, that the Osages are decreasing in number. This is owing to the continual wars in which they are engaged, in the course of which, latterly, they have met with severe losses. They have now so far to go in pursuit of the buffaloe, that their enemies frequently meet them on those excursions. Not long since, a party of Kanes and Osages hunting together, were fallen upon by their enemies and one hundred of them killed; soon after this, a war-party of Osages consisting of fifty men, were at-

tacked and forty-nine killed. If they were less addicted to war, they would probably increase rapidly.

The Osages believe in a great and powerful being, who created and governs the world, and dispenses favours to the good and punishments to the bad; his face is the sun, and the moon is his wife: their prayers are addressed to God the great father and to the moon their good mother; they believe also in what they call the God of all bad things, who they suppose to be very powerful, and to whom they often address themselves when in great misery and distress. They believe that rewards and punishments are inflicted during their lives and that when they die their affairs, as regards this world, are finally closed; they appear to believe in a future state of existence, but give themselves very little care or concern in what it will consist; and no certain opinion, or belief exists among them on that subject.

After death the bodies of the dead are dressed by their relations and friends in their best apparel, their faces painted with vermilion and verdigris, and deposited in graves without coffins, piling logs and stones over them to prevent their being dug up by the wolves.

When they mourn for the death of relations they paint themselves black, and frequently retire to the woods and lacerate their bodies, the women mourn aloud with hideous cries, not only for the loss of relations, but in most difficult and unpleasant situations. An Iowa Indian was about eight years ago confined in the jail at St. Louis for the murder of a white man, some of his relations came to St. Louis to solicit his release, a few mornings after their arrival they painted their faces black, placed a blanket over their shoulders which they fastened by sticks thrust through the fleshy parts of their arms and bodies, and singing their death songs, and with blood streaming from their wounds, they went to the house of the governor to make their solicitations.



The Osages possess all the vices peculiar to Indians who have been long in contact with the whites; they are deceitful in the extreme, much addicted to stealing, lying, and gaming, and are very great beggars. They believe their own nation superior to all the rest of the world, the Americans they think next to themselves, and the Spaniards the most contemptible of all.

The Osages are armed with fuzees and rifles for hunting and war. In hunting the buffaloe, which they do mounted, they prefer using bows and arrows; they have also tomahawks, spears, and lances; they are subject to but few disorders; fevers, dysenteries, cough, itch, meazles, and sore eyes are the principal, consumptions are rare. Indian children suffer from dentition, and hydrophobia is a disorder not unknown.

There are probably forty or fifty white men living among the Osages, they are of the worst class, lazy, vicious, and every way degraded, they have intermarried with their women, and although looked upon as a species of public servants, they have considerable influence, and are a great evil to the tribes. † The Osages are considered by the nations south of them as a brave and warlike people; they have by no means the same character with the northern Indians, and those on the Missouri, who are armed with guns, consider themselves their superiors; the Ottoes say, if the Osages were their only enemies, they would lose but little sleep.

The Osages, like all other Indians, are hospitable; when received into their village you present yourself to the chief, who receives you as his guest, and spreads before you the best things to eat that he has in his possession, you are then invited to a feast by all the considerable men in the village.

In 1808 a treaty was made with the Osages, by which they surrendered a large tract of country to the United States; when the commissioners of the United States arrived with the treaty at fort Osage, it was laid before the chiefs assem-

bled at that post, with no other explanation than that it was a treaty that they must sign, the Indians, at first, objected to signing it, they were, however, told that they must either sign it or be considered as enemies of the United States. The United States were very tardy in fulfilling their part of the contract, and the Indians supposed it had been forgotten; they were, however, called to St. Louis to finish the treaty by receiving the stipulated purchase money. The Osages objected to receiving it, and at a council held on the occasion, the principal speaker, Le Sonneur, addressed governor Howard in these words, 'He was much surprised to hear of this purchase, that had been forgotten by his nation; and, he supposed, had also been forgotten by his great father; the sale was made by those who had no authority to make it; and his great father not having complied with his part of the bargain, by delaying two years the stipulated payment, and not performing other parts of the treaty, his nation ought not to be held to their part of it, even if fairly entered into. But,' said he, 'the Osage nation have no right to sell its country, much less have a few chiefs, who have taken upon themselves to do so; our country belongs to our posterity as well as ourselves; it is not absolutely ours, we receive it only for our life time, and then to transmit it to our descendants; our great father is good and just, will he permit his children to sell the bones of their fathers? or fathers to sell the inheritance of their children? No, my father, keep your goods and let us keep our lands.'

The pathos or justice of this appeal was unavailing; they were told they might take the goods or not, as they thought proper, but that the lands should be considered as belonging to the United States.

There are many incitements to war among these people. Glory and distinction appear to be the idols of their hearts. If a young Indian, who has not distinguished himself, wishes to marry a squaw, and there is no objection to the match as



he is a good hunter, and able to support his wife; when the youth asks the consent of the father, he will probably say, I have no objection to you, but you know I am of a considerable family, what reputation will you bring into it as you have never been to war, and are no warrior? When you have acquired a name in war, you shall have my daughter. The Indian now becomes anxious for war; he joins the first war-party; or, if he is an aspiring youth he paints his face, raises a small fire near the village, and begins the song of invitation to war, he is joined probably by some of his companions, and a war-party is raised which sallies out to kill their enemies and steal horses.

An old woman carrying a burthen will frequently be heard to exclaim aloud, 'I am old and have to carry a large burthen, I have a son, a grown man and stout, but he has never been to war, to steal a horse for his old mother.' This reproach frequently repeated drives the son eventually to war.

August 5th we left Fort Osage, intending to proceed in a S. W. direction, to cross the Kanzas River, at the Kanzas village, about 150 miles from its mouth, and go from there over to La Platte river, at the Pawnee villages, and from thence to the Council Bluff, on the Missouri.

After a march of 16 days, through a country almost exclusively of rolling prairie, covered with a thin vegetation, and in which we found some difficulty in obtaining water, and suffered excessively from the intense heat of the sun without meeting any of the natives; we came in sight of the Kanzas village. At the Kanzas, where the Indians with whom our troops had some difficulty last spring, which ended in the whipping of several of them, we were doubtful as to what would be our reception; we hoisted our flag, but the natives did not appear to discover us for some time. At length, however, we saw the tops of their earthen lodges, covered with people, and immediately after, discovered a large party, headed by a chief, rushing towards us, some mounted,

and some on foot. The chief who was in advance, halted his horse when within a few paces of us; surveyed us sternly and attentively for some moments, and then offered his hand, the rest followed in a more tumultuous manner, shaking hands, and crowding round us, and forming the most grotesque groups imaginable. Order being somewhat restored, we explained in a few words, who we were, and what was our object in visiting their country. The chief ordered the crowd to keep off, which they did, and forming a lane for us, we moved forward towards the village. We were conducted to the lodge of the principal chief, and our soldiers were carried to that of one of the subordinates; on our reaching the entrance of the lodge, we were met by the favourite wife of the chief, who took charge of our horses and baggage, we entered the lodge, followed by a considerable crowd; who, however, kept at a respectful distance. After being seated, a quantity of jerked Buffaloe meat was produced by the women, cut into slices and placed in bowls before us; some cool water was sent for, and we were invited to eat, we eat heartily and considered it as the best meat we had ever tasted; owing probably, as well to the real excellence of Buffaloe as meat, the novelty of it, and the rough diet we had lately been accustomed to. This repast being ended, and a pipe smoked, the inquiry was again repeated of our object and destination, we informed the chief that we were bound to the Pawnee village, on our way to the Council Bluffs, and that curiosity was our motive for taking his village in our route, the chief proclaimed aloud to the crowd in the lodge, the explanation that had been given him; they in return stated to us, that they had only returned the day before from their summer Buffaloe hunt, in which they had been very successful and had found the Buffaloe much nearer their village than they usually do, that they had returned to the village, to gather their green corn, and other vegetables, that they had received a message from the In-



dian agent, to meet him at the Isle aux Vaches that their principal men would start directly for the Missouri. This business being concluded, we were invited to a feast by one of the head men; we accompanied him to his lodge and were invited to seat ourselves on a mat; two wooden bowls, filled with Buffaloe meat, soup and corn were placed before us, with spoons made of the Buffaloe horn; we found the dish very palatable, and although we had just risen from eating, we ate heartily again. As soon as we had finished, we arose and left the lodge; we were immediately, however, invited to another feast, and conducted to another lodge; we seated ourselves again on the mat; and corn, prepared in a manner new to us, was again set before us; we thought it good, and took our leave in the same unceremonious manner as before; we were invited again to a feast, that consisted of water melons; during the course of the day, we were invited to partake of nine or ten feasts. The chief, at whose lodge we resided, came to tell us, that as he was obliged to go, and to take with him his principal wife, he had left a man in his lodge to see that his other wives cooked for us, and that we had plenty to eat. The Kanes village is situated near the junction of the Kanes and Blue-earth rivers; the village itself is a confused assemblage of lodges covered with dirt; their figures are circular, and their diameter from thirty to sixty feet; piles are driven into the ground in the form of a circle, which are elevated four or five feet from the earth, on these rest rafters which meet in the centre at an elevation of six or seven degrees, forming for the roof a conical figure with an aperture in the centre, to permit the smoke to escape. The lodge is covered with earth and mats on the roof and sides, and forms a comfortable habitation; the entrance is protected by a projection through which you stoop to pass. The interior of the lodge is surrounded by a platform, raised about two feet from the ground, on which are placed, the skins, corn, saddles, &c, of the owner; the floor is the bare

earth, generally however, covered with mats in some parts. In the evening, the village resounded with musical sounds from the voices of the natives, and from one or two rude instruments, the most noisy of which was a hollow reed, having holes something like a flute or fife: they appear to have no idea of a regular tune, although they raise and depress their notes occasionally with some degree of regularity; their songs are generally the mere repetition of certain unmeaning sounds; some of them however, we understood, had words descriptive of particular warlike achievements. They have drums which they use in their wars, and dancing; bells also, which they obtain from the whites, and a whistle made of the thigh-bone of the sand-shell crane; this they carry in their war excursions, and blow it when they charge, or commence firing upon an enemy. In singing together, they keep their voices very exactly in unison, and beat time with a stick or the hand; the singing continues until midnight. Our lodge was crowded with the relations of our host, and others who slept round the fire; the smoke of the pipes, and the smell of the skins and provisions, made no very agreeable atmosphere.

The Kaneses, or as they are generally called the Kawns, are not a large tribe; we counted 120 lodges in the village, in each of which resided, on an average, two families and ten persons. One lodge however, frequently contains only one family; and some of the principal men owned two lodges. The whole population may amount to 1200, and they can muster probably, 350 warriors.

The manners, habits, language and agricultural pursuits of the Kaneses, resemble those of the Osages in the same particulars; the language is very closely assimilated. The Kaneses formerly resided on the Missouri, about seventy miles above the Kaneses River; they were very much reduced, and finally about sixteen years since banished from the position, by their enemies the Iowas and Sacs; these tribes being more



numerous, and better supplied with fire arms, the Kaneses, although equally brave, were unable to contend with them. The hunting excursions of these people, extend southwardly and westwardly to the immense plains between the Kaneses, its branches and La Platte, and between the Kaneses and Arkansas Rivers—it is here they find the buffaloe, on which they principally rely for subsistence. In their winter hunts for furs, they resort to the Missouri, and hunt between the Kaneses and Neheman River; here they procure beaver, otter, elk, and deer skins, to trade with the whites for guns, blankets, &c. It is to be in the neighbourhood of traders, that they choose the Missouri for their hunting ground. On the branches of the Kaneses, is a country more abounding in valuable furs. When they hunt for buffaloe on the plains, the whole nation moves, and encamps together, and follows the herd of buffaloe. When they come down on the Missouri to hunt, they are compelled to scatter into small parties; the game they procure, being elk, deer, and turkies, which are soon exhausted and compel the Indians not only to separate in small parties, but frequently to change their position.

There are in this village, two French or Canadian white men; they have several Indian wives, and children, and live like the natives. However disgusting this retrograde of civilized to savage life may appear, it is not extraordinary when the characters of the individuals are considered: they are invariably excessively ignorant, without education, and being generally boatmen, they have not only been lost to civilized society, but have acquired the erratic vagrant habits of Indians, by their previous profession.

The Kaneses are armed with guns, bows and arrows, like other Indians on the Missouri; they are not good marksmen with fire-arms; this arises from their hunting the buffaloe with bows and arrows, from their indolence in seldom practising at a mark, the value of ammunition, and the little trouble they take to keep their arms in order. They prefer hunt-

ing the buffaloe with bows and arrows, because as they are always mounted on those occasions, and a buffaloe is seldom killed with one shot, they find it more easy to fit an arrow to the bow, than to load a gun, on horseback. The bow and arrow is by no means a contemptible weapon in their hands; at a distance of thirty paces, they shoot their arrows with great force and accuracy, and with irresistible rapidity; they appear to have no poisoned weapons.

The little inconvenience suffered by Indian women in child-birth is really remarkable. No diminution of their usual laborious occupation takes place; on the contrary the only assistant or remedy they make use of, is exercise; which they always use freely when in this situation. A woman following the roving excursions of her tribe, carrying a bundle on her head or back, will step aside, bring forth her infant, wrap it in a piece of buffaloe skin, resume her load, placing the infant on the top of it, and continue her route, without occasioning the least halt or delay to the party. At the first water she bathes herself and her child, or during the winter if no water is near, she washes it in the snow, or breaks the ice of the stream; at the evening's camp she assists as usual in putting up the lodge, &c. Those who have children by white men, suffer more severely.

The Indians appear to have no mode of salutation at meeting or parting, that they have not learned from whites. When friends meet who have been long separated, they are silent, take a seat, and after some time begin to talk; relations meet in the same way; no embracing or evident gesticulations of joy takes place.

Although it is considered a great honour in war, to capture a man alive, more so in fact than to take his scalp, yet the risk of escape is so great, and the chance of future usefulness so small, that men are seldom taken prisoners. Women however, and young boys or girls, they are fond of making prisoners; the former are useful by taking their share in



carrying burthens, hoeing corn, &c. they are considered the property of the captors, and the manner in which they are treated, depends very much upon their own character, and that of the person to whom they belong. Sometimes they are treated very harshly, and frequently they are taken as wives by their masters, and receive the same treatment as the other women. The boys are brought up and adopted, become attached to the nation, and often prove useful hunters and brave warriors. Such a man we saw yesterday; he is a Pawnee Indian by birth, taken prisoner when young; he is anxious to see once more his relations, and talks of accompanying us to his native village.

It is quite an erroneous opinion, that women are treated with contempt and disrespect, or that they have no influence among Indians. They occupy a position quite as important as they do with the whites: they do not actually go into their councils or to war, neither do they with us, but all domestic concerns, all the property of the family, and all matters of trade, are under the direction of the women; and although what we consider hard drudgery is performed by them, yet neither the men nor the women, think the labour or duties assigned to women, degrading or humiliating: they appear to think them important, and they are performed with cheerfulness, alacrity and pride: and in the exercise of them, they are seldom advised, or ordered by men. That they should carry burthens, hoe corn, &c. they consider as an equal distribution of labour with their husbands, who are compelled to hunt, and war, rather than an unequal task imposed upon themselves.

Wars among Indians, are to be attributed principally, to the influence of women. No man is regarded by them favourably, until he has distinguished himself as a warrior. The influence of the mothers is very great; they train their children to make bold defenders, and though they sometimes are treated by them with disrespect, yet they retain the pow-

er of exciting them to deeds of war, either to gratify their vanity, their revengeful malignant passions, or to procure horses to ease them from the immense burthens they are sometimes compelled to carry.

The apparel of the women consists of a sort of petticoat of blue strouding, fastened to the waist, and reaching to the knees; a covering of like material over their shoulders and breasts; and leggings of blue or red cloth, as high as their knees. In the hot season, they generally appear without the two last articles; the men have nothing but a breech cloth and blanket, or buffaloe skin over their shoulders. The boys go entirely naked, and the girls are clothed with but little regard to decency. This is their ordinary costume; when the men want to appear to advantage, they daub their faces and bodies over with vermillion, have leggings ornamented with stained porcupine quills, and their blanket or buffaloe skin, fantastically painted.

The women in our lodge appeared fond of scolding; they exercise this talent upon their children, dogs, and each other with all the violence and gesticulation we are accustomed to witness among the lower class of whites: actual quarrelling however, is very rare; we have witnessed nothing of the kind, since we have been in the village. On the contrary, both men and women are generally in good spirits, lively, and social, and having plenty of corn and buffaloe meat, they appear happy and contented, go to sleep at night while they are singing, and are awoke in the morning by the same sort of music. Every morning the whole village, men women and children, bathe and wash themselves in the river. Their cleanliness in this respect, is very much at variance with their filthiness in other matters. The interior of their lodges are extremely dirty; their horses are generally brought into the village at night, tied near the owner's door, to secure them from their enemies: as the filth thereby occasioned, is



never removed, a state of things is produced very different from what in the army is called a good police.

While eating to-day, which we do seated on a dirty mat, two squaws near us, were busily employed searching each other's heads for certain animals, which we have been accustomed to consider very disgusting; but which they appear to find very abundant and palatable.

The relationship between parent and child appears to be strongly felt, and to exist through life. The deportment of our host towards his child, is exceedingly affectionate. He plays with it for hours, and nothing appears to gratify him so much, as to take notice of it, or present it with any thing. They never impose upon their children those restrictions, and severe discipline, which forms part of a white child's education; as it would tend to check that boldness of spirit, which among them is all important.

The Kaneses appear to have but little mechanical ingenuity. The fabrication of their lodges, bows and arrows, wooden bowls from the knots on trees, and mats from the stem of the cat-tail, appears to be the sum of their manufactory.

The quality of the blankets, &c, that they receive from our traders, is very inferior to those furnished by the north-west company. Nothing can be more unfounded, than the supposition that any articles, or every article of finery will suit Indians; they have fashions, which are quite as peremptory as our own, and it is only those things they are accustomed to, or which are useful to them that they place much value on; besides they are continually removing from one place to another, carrying with them every thing they possess; being limited in their means of transportation, they cannot carry superfluous articles.

These Indians have no fixed times for eating; while in the village, they eat five or six times a day. We have food placed before us at the lodge, several times during the day, besides the feasts to which we are invited out of it. They never

eat their meat raw, but from necessity—they make soup of the buffaloe and otter meats, and they eat the meat either boiled or jerked. Corn is a great article in their diet; they use it in the soup, and dress it by itself in a variety of ways. What I thought most palatable was this, the corn was plucked before it was ripe, boiled on the cob, and dried afterwards; the grain beat from the cob, and pounded into hominy; when used it was boiled again, with a little buffaloe fat, down to the consistence of mush.

The old squaw that cooks for us, hovering round her pot and fire; her long straight coarse hair covering partially her haggard, sun-burnt, wrinkled face, and nothing but a few rags to cover her dirty person, personifies, very exactly, our ideas of a witch.

They have salt which they procure from the grand saline, south of the Arkansaw: like all such salt, it is very strong and excellent. They do not however, appear to be fond of it themselves, although they generally place it before us, knowing that white men are accustomed to it.—They raise corn, beans, pumpkins, and water-melons; the hoe is the only agricultural instrument they make use of. They are excessively fond of smoking the pipe; they do not make use of the tobacco alone, but mix it in the proportion of about half with the leaves of the sumach-tree scorched before the fire, and pulverized; or the inner bark of the red willow, dried and cut into small pieces; the smoke of this mixture has an agreeable smell, and communicates a more pleasant taste than the tobacco does without it. Chastity is regarded as a virtue; the Indians display the most lively curiosity at everything near to them, which we have with us; they appear never tired of looking at us, and examine with great attention, every novelty. They however, were perfectly polite, never intrude themselves too near us, or offer to take any thing to look at, without permission. The influence of public opinion, upon the mind of an Indian, is generally more pow-



erful than the authority of the chief. They appear honest in their dealings, stealing from each other seldom takes place, although theft when attended with danger or dexterity is considered commendable; we had no apprehension of our horses being stolen, and considered our baggage in the lodge safe; but as in all communities, there are various grades of respectability, we were cautious about laying temptations in the way of Indian morality.

(To be continued.)

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ART. V.—*Sismondi on Prejudices. Translated from the French.*

(Continued from page 447. vol. 14.)

§. 1. Prejudices of Memory.

Memory, though not our principal faculty, is that which gives birth to the most powerful and most universal of our prejudices, to that whose influence is most constant over our opinions and our affections; that which makes us cherish the recollections of infancy. Life, at its commencement, was of itself enjoyment: our growing powers exceeded our wants; our hopes were far beyond reality; lively emotions were mingled even with our sufferings, which were attended by a sensibility so active, an imagination so fertile, that the remembrance of them is agreeable. As we advance in life, we regret every thing belonging to our youth, even its illusions, its pains, and its defects: sensibility is blunted, imagination is extinguished, confidence so often betrayed flies from us, and reason which strengthens and afflicts us, affords us no recompence for what we have lost. Our powers of intellect become weaker as we advance in life, but we cannot consent to entertain a worse opinion, of *them*, we only think worse of the world. We fondly believe, that there is some reality in those sentiments, of which we have preserved for so long a time, such a lively remembrance. We attribute to a change

in others, and not in ourselves, that distrust which has since arisen within us. It appears to us, as if mankind were formerly worthy of that unlimited confidence, which we reposed in them; princes, magistrates, priests, never *seemed* to abuse their power, because we suspected them of no abuse; fathers, husbands, masters, *seemed* to have no interest but that of their dependents, because we obeyed them without distrust; morals were then pure, because we dreamed of no irregularity. The dream of the golden age, the love of the good old times, respect for the wisdom of our fathers, are the consequences, often agreeable, but always deceptive, of that ardour with which we cherish the recollections of our youth, and of that love, which we retain, even at an advanced age, for all its emotions.

The general bias of mankind, to cultivate the recollections of infancy, contributes to the stability of all those public institutions, which form the pillars of society. A popular affection almost unaccountable, surrounds reigning families, the depositories of a power which from its very nature, is more frequently employed to punish, than to reward. In their names, are ordained taxes, prohibitions, restrictions of every kind, war and the raising of soldiers, punishments and executions; whilst the good that princes do, is of a metaphysical nature, it is protection which is not perceived, and order which seems to exist of itself; their most beneficent influence is like the air which we breathe, we live in the midst of it, without seeing it. Some men who live at courts, obtain personal favors, but the great mass of the people know them, only by their privations. Notwithstanding, peasants, soldiers, artificers, scarcely ever speak of the head of government, without expressions of confidence and affection, which he does not appear to have deserved. 'It is our good king,' say they, our beloved monarch, if he does err, it is because he is deceived, because he cannot see every thing, because he is sur-



rounded by faithless ministers.' The people never attribute his crimes, his errors, or his faults, to himself,

Why then should subjects love their king? Because he is, above every thing, the representative of the old times, of the recollections of infancy, the depository of that blind confidence, which at an early age we are obliged to grant, and which we withdraw only when sad experience constrains us. Because he is the *king of our fathers*; and that name recalls to us, the time when we still had about us those first objects of our affections, and when they took upon themselves, for us, all the cares of life. It is he, or the son, or the grandson of him, who reigned in the good old times, the times which we supposed to be free from abuse, because abuses did not come to our knowledge. When the historian reviews the events of several ages, the wickedness, the abuse of power, of which some dynasties have been guilty, he often searches in vain for the causes of the love, confidence, and gratitude of the people; but the causes are within themselves. It is not the king that they love, but the *old time*, and the old time is that of their infancy.

Respect for ancient families, for ancient authorities, for ancient laws, for an ancient constitution, is also of the same nature. Time is the great enemy of our race, and every thing that has triumphed over time, becomes dear to us by that title. But most frequently, it is less the antiquity that we love in things that are old, than our own infancy; by a singular association the two ideas, almost always present themselves to us united. Our respect for the old time, would be very cold, without the remembrance of our early years; and the act of our memory which awakens a vague sentiment of love, is the return towards a period, in which we loved ourselves better.

Every religion offers in its turn, as a certain proof of its heavenly origin, that instinctive respect for its mysteries, which reappears after a long interval in the hearts of those, who it

was believed, had forever shaken off the yoke of their fathers' faith; those tardy conversions of persons who have been notorious for their worldly life, or their infidelity; that faith which triumphs over doubt, long after doubt had sapped the foundations of faith; the return of the Jew to his Tabernacle, of the Mohammedan to his Mosque, of the Bonze to his Pagoda, after their wanderings in the midst of Infidels; that intoxication of joy in a whole people, when Julian reestablished an ancient worship, with its old superstitions, which was supposed to have been long since derailed by the growth of a better philosophy. An argument that all Religions can make use of, should not be conclusive for any; the fact is, it proves nothing, but the power of our recollections, and particularly of those of our infancy.

Every father of whatever religion, considers it his duty to give to his children, what he calls a religious education: that is to say, to teach them with care, the creed in which he was himself brought up, to strike the imagination with its miracles, to offer to their tender and ingenuous hearts, religion as an object of love, to allay the fears of ignorance by its consolations and its support. All the poetical powers of youth, those faculties so vigorous in early life, and which are weakened in proportion as frigid reason advances with a firmer step, are betimes associated with the national religion, whatever that may be. If parents doubt, they conceal it from their children, and always wish to transmit to them, a perfect faith, which they do not possess themselves. If that faith is contrary to the natural light of reason, to the fundamental principles of morality, and if the believer should find himself under the necessity of exercising his mind in the comparison of his creed with those of other sects, and of doubting that which he had taken for truth, the whole structure of his faith crumbles before his eyes, often before he finds time to build another; all his principles are shaken; he is tossed on a sea of uncertainty; his distrust extends to eve-



ry thing, and he regrets the happy time when he believed, and disputed not. Then, let but disease or old age arrive, with their weakness and terrors, the faith of his youth, called however by him the creed of his fathers, will appear to him as a revelation, with all the charms of youth. It will recall to him all the hopes he had conceived, awaken his first love, which was extinguished in his frozen veins, and revive in his memory the fugitive dreams of an imagination that he possesses no more. He would believe, because in believing, he seems to begin life anew, and *perhaps* his faith would be sincere.

The recollections of infancy afford support to a prejudice favourable to every thing that exists, or that has existed, whether it be good or bad. They consequently perform a very important part in the social organization, since the first thing that men ought to seek in forming their institutions is a guarantee for their stability and duration. The power of the recollections of infancy acts as a bridle upon that innovating and unquiet spirit which is produced among the people by a time of hardship. If the constant desire of reform was alone listened to, no reform could ever take place, because none would have time to produce its proper fruits. But except in times of great suffering, the power of recollections has much more influence over the people, than the desire of reform, or the taste for change. Other prejudices also, are constantly in arms in favour of the established order, so that the terror of mind excited by innovation, and the distrust with which we regard the uneasiness of the people, are often totally destitute of foundation.

There is however, one case, in which the power of the recollections of infancy, and of the prejudices resulting therefrom, is arrayed against the established order, and is able frequently to excite revolution, although the established order may not be very bad; it is that, in which the whole organization civil or religious, has already been changed by a revolution. It

is the nature of the memory, which recalls to us a time different from the present, to efface the evil and to enhance the good; because memory always represents to us the new order of things and ourselves; but it represents ourselves as younger, more full of life, hope and enjoyment, bearing with ease the burthen of evil, less conscious of its existence and having more confidence in others and ourselves. When once a complete revolution has changed the government under which we have lived, after the lapse of a few years, we look upon the new order, with the sad views of advanced age, whilst we look back upon our former state, through the coloring prism of youth. If reformation has succeeded to the catholic worship, the old man regrets the pomp of the ancient church, which he saw in his youth, the magic of her mysteries, and that sincere faith, which, whilst it forbade examination, also excluded doubt. When a warlike usurper succeeds to a long dynasty of idle and peaceable kings, the old man regrets those times of peace and ignorance, when long abuses were buried in profound silence, and his ear not being assailed by complaint he did not believe in the existence of evil. If the conqueror should be overturned, and the legitimate king find himself again upon the throne, the nation regrets the glory, that it fed upon, in the days that are no more, and forgets the sacrifices, at the price of which, that glory was purchased.

This constant difference in our appreciation of the present and the past, this universal prejudice in favour of the *regime* we have lost, is one of the great causes of those long vibrations, which always follow political and religious revolutions, of those unexpected and often successful efforts, to restore an order of things, which was supposed to have no more partisans. History shows us these effects in every page, from the conspiracy of the sons of Brutus in Tarquin's favour, to the present day.



ART. <sup>VI</sup>~~IV~~.—*Monument to Captain Ross.*

ACCOMPANYING this number of the *Analectic Magazine*, is a correct architectural view of a monument erected in Philadelphia to the memory of Captain Charles Ross, a gentleman who was much esteemed and whose death in the prime of life and usefulness, caused general regret. The die presents four tablets for the inscriptions.

*I. On the West Side.*

In  
Memoriam  
Caroli Ross, Equitis  
Turmae Equitum Ducis,  
Qui Natus est V<sup>to</sup> Otobris  
MDCCLXXII,  
Obiit viii<sup>vo</sup> Octobris  
MDCCCXVII  
Etatis suæ  
XLVI.

*South Side.*

‘In the field; to the manly virtues of the soldier he joined the discipline, honour and deportment of the officer. In private life, the urbanity of the gentleman, the valuable qualities of the useful citizen, dutiful son, affectionate brother, sincere friend governed his conduct. Noble, generous, honourable, intrepid, he departed in the prime of life.

It is left for us to mourn his loss, to emulate his character, and by this testimony of our affection, to show our respect for his talents and his-virtues.’

*North Side.*

This Monument  
is erected by the Members of the  
“First Troop Philadelphia City Cavalry,”  
Friends and Associates  
of their late Commander, Charles Ross;

*Monument to Captain Ross.*

of which Troop  
 He was a member 23 years  
 and Captain 6 years.

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Consecrated  
 by Friendship to departed Worth.

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The virtues  
 of the  
 Brave and Honourable  
 we cherish.

*East Side.*

Sacred  
 to the  
 Memory  
 of  
 Charles Ross.

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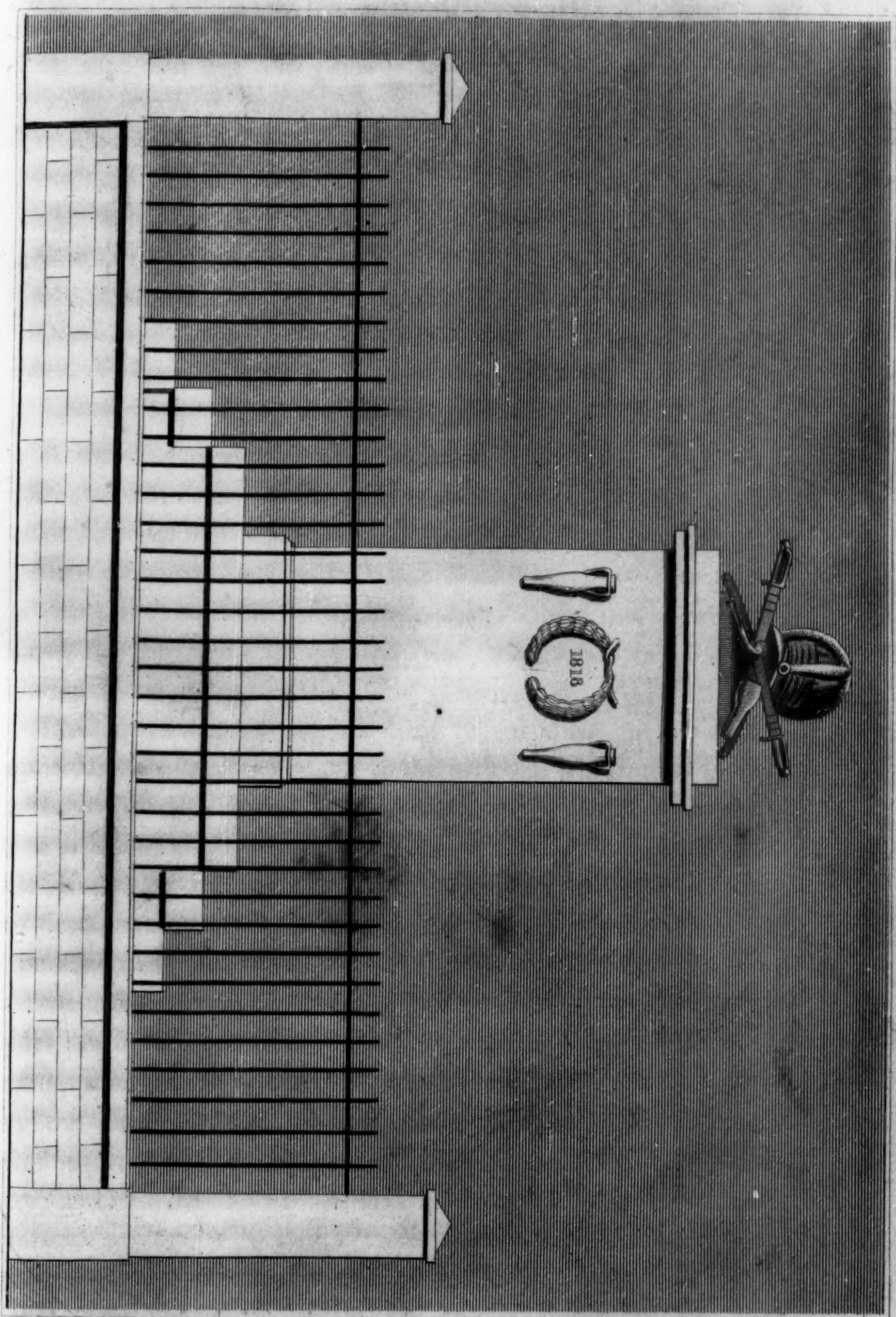
How sleep the brave who sink to rest,  
 By all their country's wishes blest.

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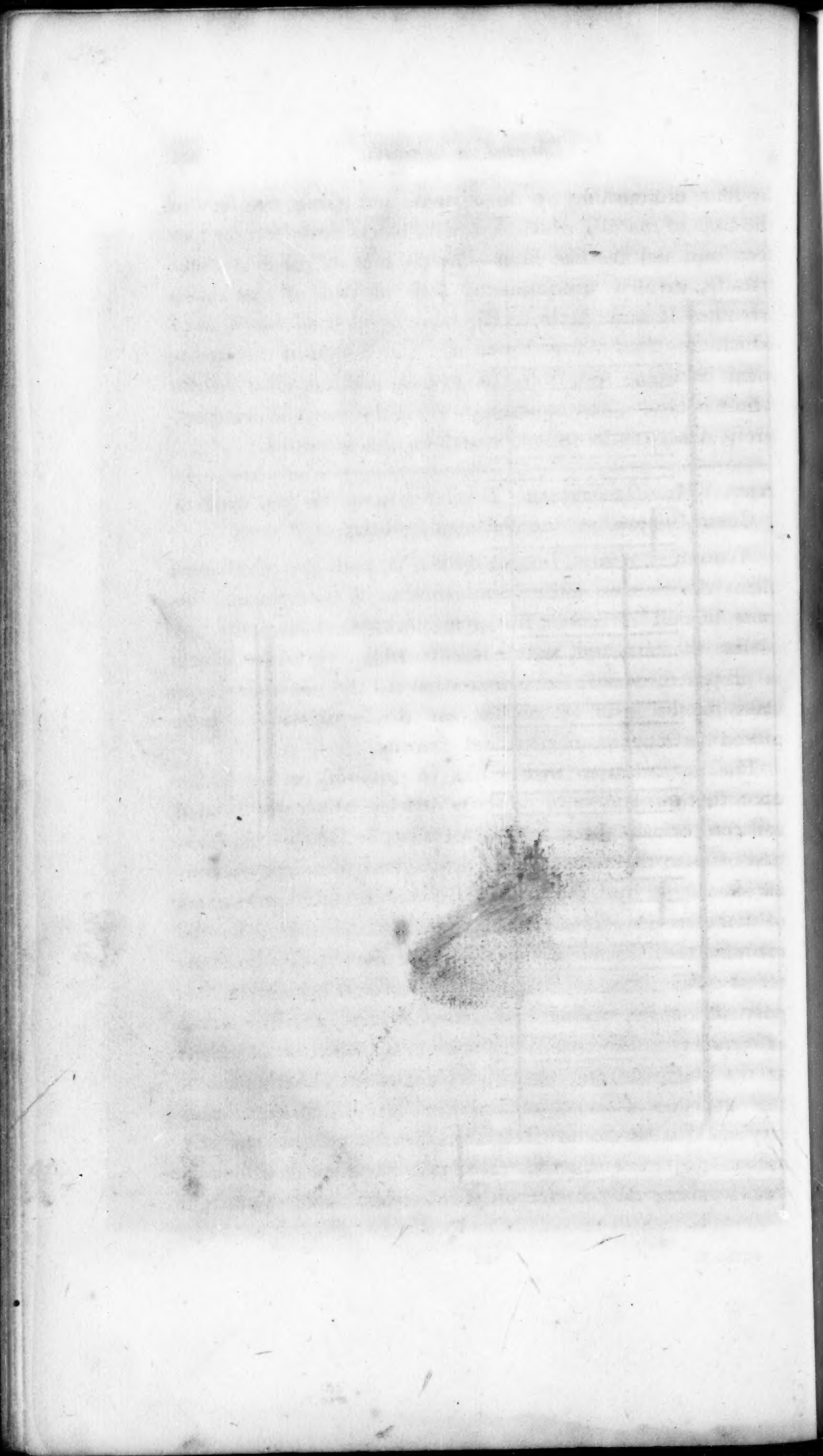
The body decays; but the immortal  
 soul awaits the last trumpet's  
 joyful sound.

The monument is a specimen of much classick beauty and is probably the only one in our country in which the marble and bronze are united. It stands in an enclosure surrounded by a basement wall and iron railing. The foundation under ground, is an arch sprung upon walls five feet deep, and covered with solid brick two feet above the surface of the ground, which is sloped to conceal the brick work. The whole is covered by a slab marble fourteen feet by four, extending in length between the basement wall of the enclosure. On the slab rests the base of the monument nine feet





MONUMENT TO CHARLES ROSS.





by four, diminishing by three steps, and rising two feet to the base of the die, which is a solid block three feet by two feet four, and five feet high—On the top are piled symmetrically, cavalry appointments, and on two of the sides, wreathes of laurel between Egyptian laychrymal vases; all of which are of solid brass bronzed. The height of the monument is twelve feet from the ground, and the effect of the whole is chaste, and imposing—It has the merit of being entirely American in design, materials, and execution.

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ART. VII.—*On Imposts.* Tranlated from the late work of Count Chaptal on ‘the National Industry of France.’

A GOOD system of Impost-duties, is, perhaps, of all problems which arise in the administration of government, the most difficult to resolve: the great object is, to reconcile opposing interests; and, as this is impossible, every law which is proposed, must in some degree hazard the interests of one class, for the good of another, and the legislator is always placed between approbation and censure.

The agriculturist wishes him to prohibit, or lay duties upon the importation of all those articles which the French soil can furnish, either for manufacture, or for the consumption of man; the manufacturer insists that those raw-materials should be free of duty, which, concurrently with others of domestic origin, nourish his industry, and that all foreign manufactures should be excluded; the merchant, whose interest differs from all, desires that he should permit the import and export, without restriction or duty, of every article of commerce; the consumer, whose only object is to subsist at the cheapest rate, would prefer that he should restrict the exportation of every production of the soil, and of industry, and that he should freely admit similar productions from abroad; government, which calculates the proceeds of import duties among the number of its resources, must legislate in

such a way as not to deprive the treasury of a needed supply.

It is between such conflicting interests that the financier must open his way; but, as it is impossible to reconcile all, he must find some other basis upon which to establish his decisions.

After what has just been observed, the partisans of unlimited non-restriction would not fail to conclude, that all impost duties must be suppressed: I am very far from being of this opinion; to refute it, we have only to look at the consequences of such a suppression.

If the impost duties were abolished, we should soon see those numerous establishments, where, now, iron can be manufactured to the amount of more than forty millions, fall to the ground, as these manufactures can hardly compete with those of the north of Europe, notwithstanding the enormous duties paid by the latter: we should see those beautiful workshops for thread, for weaving and printing cotton, shut up, which, established in our day, have not yet acquired sufficient strength, nor can they command sufficient capital to contend with those of other countries: we should see those precious manufactories of hard-ware disappear, which could not have been formed but under the guarantee of duties and prohibitions to check the imports from abroad, and we should reduce to misery, millions of active and industrious inhabitants, whose very existence depends upon those employments, at the same time that we should annihilate a prodigious capital vested in machinery and buildings; which would cease to be productive upon the cessation of these works of industry.

I shall doubtless be answered, that this part of our industrious population would be restored to agriculture; but can there be instanced a single spot on the surface of France, where hands are wanted for field labours?

Do we not see that many provinces are over-peopled, and that a large excess of inhabitants is yearly furnished for the



population of other countries? Agriculture is an employment, which, like all others, has its apprenticeship, requires experience, in which bodily strength is necessary, and other circumstances which could hardly be hoped for in labourers grown old in the manufactories. That portion of population which is compelled to subsist by labour, is naturally divided between the country, and the workshops of the town, in proportion to their respective wants; to change this order, is to destroy the equilibrium, and cause a fluctuation which would produce misery in the extreme.

It may be observed, also, that the consumer, which is the whole nation, will find an advantage, from the free introduction of those products of industry, which foreigners can furnish us at the lowest price: but I would ask, how should we pay foreigners for the ten hundred millions (plus d'un milliard,) of these products, which are now supplied by our own manufactories? Should it be with the productions of our soil? But the measure of foreign consumption has long since been determined, and this does not go an hundred millions beyond our own wants. It is said, that this will be augmented; I do not think so; but if it should be augmented, the amount now reserved for home consumption would still be of more value; then the consumer would lose that which he hoped to gain, and the nation would sacrifice the advantages of manual labour, by no means inconsiderable in the products of industry, in which, a greater part of the produce of the soil is employed. Should we pay the excess of our imports in specie? Where are our mines, especially, since by the insurrection in South America we are deprived of fifty millions which we drew from Spain, annually, by our commerce? Should it be by the fine cloths and silks of Lyons, the principal works of industry that we could export to advantage? If the foreign market for these articles should be doubled, which is not probable, we should not export to the value of one hundred and fifty millions. France, then, could not

pay to foreigners, the half of what she now consumes in her manufactories, and she would deprive herself of the wealth of manual labour, which represents an actual value of at least six or seven hundred millions.

So that instead of losing ourselves in the labyrinth of abstract speculation let us rather foster the established system, and endeavour to render it perfect.

A good regulation of impost, is the true safe-guard of agricultural and manufacturing industry; it raises or lowers the duties according to circumstances and necessities; it compensates the disadvantage our manufacturers suffer under, from the comparative price of labour and fuel; it protects the rising arts by prohibitions, in not leaving them open to competition with foreigners who have attained greater perfection: it tends to secure the artizan independence (*l'indépendance industrielle*) of France, and enriches her by manual labour, which, as I have frequently said, is the principal source of wealth. These regulations embrace the whole interests of the nation: and as it is impossible to serve all alike, it becomes necessary to give the preference to those which more immediately demand support.

In this sort of *hierarchie* of necessities, the manufacturing industry occupies the first rank: the manufacturer as well as the agriculturist and the merchant, employs capital in his enterprises; but his capital is so invested that it is productive only in proportion as manufactures flourish; a bad tariff annihilates it upon his hands, since for the most part it is placed in buildings and machinery. This loss would also be a real one to France, because it would diminish the actual amount of her products, and of her manual labour. The merchant and the agriculturist may be thwarted in their operations, but their capital still remains; they can change their plans, while all is lost to the manufacturer. The manufacturer, as well as the agriculturist and the merchant, employs hands, but the manual labour requisite in his opera-



tions is greater than that of the other two. In many manufactories we see five hundred hands employed, to obtain the produce of a million in value, although some commercial enterprises produce an equal sum with the assistance of a few clerks. The merchant gives no additional value to the articles which he takes; the manufacturer almost creates the entire value of what passes through his hands; by labour bestowed upon the raw material. All, without doubt, deserve the protection of government, but all do not require the same care, because their interests do not so much depend upon the regulation of the tariff.

Thus it appears that to establish the rate of duties upon correct principles, it is necessary to understand the situation of our manufactories and to compare them with those of foreign countries; it is necessary to know the difference in the price of manual labour, of fuel, and of the raw material, here, and in those countries, and upon these *data* to calculate the duties so as to make competition at least equal on our part.

There are persons who look upon impost duties, only in relation to their private interests, and who give judgment as though there was no other interest to be consulted; there are some others, (and their opinion is the most prevalent) who rely upon the principle, that raw materials ought to be allowed free admission, without payment of duty; others, again, contend that the duty upon foreign productions should never exceed fifteen per cent. on the value.

Let us analyse these three opinions:

First. We have already observed that the agriculturist, the manufacturer, the merchant, and the consumer, have opposite interests, which no regulation of duties can possibly reconcile. Amid such conflicting interests and opposite pretensions, what is the duty of the legislator? To calculate the advantages and disadvantages which result from each, and take that course which will most benefit the country.

It would be for the interest of the agriculturist that the importation of wools, hemp and flax, should be prohibited: but besides that these productions of our soil do not possess all the desirable qualities requisite, for the different kinds of manufacture in which they are used, do they now remain unsold on the hands of the growers? Is their cultivation diminished? If this were the case, there can be no doubt that the administration should pass a law, laying duties upon the importation of articles of this kind, with a view to reanimate so important a culture; but in such case it would still be necessary to leave those articles free, which we cannot produce, or which we produce in too small quantity, such as the merino wools and the long wools, so as not to dry up the source of industry which is supplied by them.

The manufacturer asks, for the free admission of raw materials, and the prohibition of foreign manufactures. If these demands were listened to, the iron of the north, and of England, would be the only kinds used in our work-shops, and France would lose an industry which supports an hundred thousand of her inhabitants, yielded by the value of her forests, and employing immense machinery, which would cease to be productive. We already possess many establishments for the manufacture of different kinds of metals, the fabrication of which was not known till within a short time, and which do not yet furnish all that is wanted for consumption: to prohibit the foreign articles then, would be a public disadvantage; all that the law can reasonably be expected to do in such case, is to establish moderate duties to foster this infant industry and to afford it such encouragement by premiums as to place it upon a fair footing of competition; this is the only way to reconcile the interests of all.

As the principal object in laying impost duties, is to protect industry, a portion of the receipts ought to be devoted to its encouragement.



There are no general rules for laying duties; every thing depends upon relative circumstances, the comparative state of industry with the wants of the consumer; or wise administration should take care to obtain a perfect knowledge of all these subjects.

Second. It is said that raw materials, generally speaking, ought to be admitted without paying any duty; and this principle is made the foundation of a system of impost: let us begin by ascertaining the signification of the term: is it intended by raw material, that which has received no manual labour? No such material exists; hemp, flax, cotton, the metals, all go through a certain process, before they become articles of commerce; and cast-steel, which ought to be considered as a raw-material, since in this state it constitutes the substance of a new species of industry, derives a very considerable part of its value from the labour bestowed upon it.

And since wool and hides have received a portion of manual labour, as well as thread for lace, and cast-steel, all ought to be comprised in the class of raw materials; the only difference between them depends upon the greater or less proportion of manual labour they have received.

Whatever manual labour has been bestowed upon an article, it does not cease to be a raw-material, if it can be of no service to the consumer until after it has passed through certain other operations of industry, to fit it for final use: departing from this principle, one knows not how or where to commence, nor where to stop. I am not ignorant that the different degrees of manual labour bestowed upon a substance, ought to be taken into consideration, because this manual labour is a kind of wealth which we should endeavour to supply ourselves; but since the additional work to be applied to the material already prepared, gives it an enormous value in comparison with its cost, is there not in this, sufficient reason for admitting it into our workshops, in preference to other substances, less wrought, but which, nevertheless can receive

no additional value from workmanship? The threads which serve to make lace, the cast-steel which is converted into trinkets, although they may already have received much work, are they not more to our interest, do they not require the exercise of more skill and workmanship, than the wools of Barbary which have scarcely received any?

In departing from the principle, that a tariff can only be established upon a perfect knowledge of the comparative state of our own industry with that of foreign countries, we must inevitably go astray.

Suppose, for a moment, that the advocates for a free admission of raw-materials should confine themselves to those which have received the least degree of labour, and let us apply their principles so as to judge of the consequences.

Cotton thread constitutes the raw material in our numerous manufactories for weaving and printing calicoes, &c; open our ports to this product of a first operation of industry, and see the inevitable result; a capital of more than an hundred millions, now productive, would be lost to the spinner, to the manufacturer, and to France; because it consists in buildings, machinery, and implements appropriated exclusively to this use; a population of two hundred thousand workmen would be deprived of employment; about eighty millions of manual labour would be lost to the country; commerce would be cut off from one of its principal resources which consists in the transportation of cottons from Asia and America to France. And that no one may suppose I am deceiving myself, I know the comparative state of our cotton-yarn manufactories with those of two neighbouring countries: here, manual labor is cheaper; there, the greater extent of their establishments, supported by immense capital constitute advantages, against which we can not as yet contend. Add to this, the English spinning factories with their machinery have existed for sixty years; that the expense of their first establishment has been defrayed; that the profits have created new capital; whilst those of



France have been started in our own day, and the interest of the money first expended must for a long time, be deducted from the profits of manufacturing. The English manufactories having defrayed the expense of their establishment, and being rich in capital, can make sacrifices to suppress a rival industry; the French have no means of opposing them, unless protected by law. To enable the industry of one nation to enter into competition with that of another, it is not sufficient that its productions should be of the same quality, it is necessary also that the means of operation should present equal advantages on both sides.

Coal is certainly a raw material; very well! let its free importation be permitted, without duty, we should soon see closed those rich coal-mines of the north and middle of France, where such immense sums have been expended to reach the veins, and to raise the water and coal by means of steam-engines. The low price at which the English could deliver their coal at our ports, from the facility of its extraction, and the vicinity of their mines to the sea, gives them an advantage which we could in no way meet. It will be replied that the manufactories situated on the sea board would derive advantage, and be able to sell their productions much lower: I am persuaded of this, but is there not an important branch of industry employed in working our own mines? And do not those who are engaged in these enterprises merit some consideration? Ought we to destroy the capital they have invested in machinery? All that the legislator can do, is to calculate the expense of transporting the coal of the two countries to the place of consumption, and ascertain what duties laid upon the foreign coal, will place it upon an equal footing with our own; he ought to suppress, with regard to a material of such essential importance as coal, all the taxes upon inland navigation, dig canals to facilitate the distribution of it, abolish tolls, and allow all our workshops to be supplied at a low price. France does not

want for coal-mines: they are also distributed in such a manner, as to be able to supply the wants of each district; but the communication is difficult, and transportation too expensive; this renders their use very limited, and the prices of our manufactures are higher than they should be—We were lately tributary to other countries for pot-ashes, allum, and copperas, which constitute the raw material of our most important arts; chemistry has endowed France with these; and we have laid duties upon the importation of them, to propagate and encourage the manufacture; and further, we have abolished the duty upon salt, which is used in the manufacture of pot ash. If at this day, we should abolish or diminish the duties which have been laid upon foreign productions of this nature, and should restrict, in whole or in part, the importation of salt, not only should we violate a solemn compact, under which the manufacturers embarked in these enterprises, but, by destroying that confidence reposed in the acts of government, we should do away in a moment, the fairest achievements of French industry.

We have already spoken of iron, which is without dispute, a raw material in the strictest sense, since it cannot be applied to any useful purpose in the state in which it is imported: having pointed out the consequences which would result from the free importation of this metal, we will not return to this subject. We will confine ourselves to the remark, that so long as fuel is so much dearer in France than in the north of Europe and in England, it will be impossible for our irons to enter into competition with those of foreigners, and we must necessarily have recourse to duties to balance the disadvantage.

It must be already seen, after the examples just cited, that without seriously compromising the industry and wealth of the country, all raw materials cannot be admitted, indiscriminately, free of duty.



Third. A principle having no other foundation than precedent, has derived some importance from the character of those who established it: it is said that manufactures\* which cannot flourish with the aid of fifteen per cent. duty upon importations, do not deserve the protection of government.

(*To be continued.*)

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ART. VIII.—*Sketches of Travels in Sicily, Italy, and France in a series of Letters addressed to a friend in the United States.* By John James, M.D. Albany, 1820. 1 vol. 12mo.

THE volume before us is a slight but spirited outline of observations, made during short residences at Palermo, and Catanea, in Sicily, in the winter of 1816—17; in a voyage to Naples, a journey to Rome, and Florence, another voyage from L'Erice to Genoa; and a second journey from the last mentioned city, through Turin and Lyons to Paris. The whole travels were accomplished before the close of the spring of 1817, so that the author had barely time to give a hasty glance at the most interesting objects in his route. He shows that he has not been idle, and his volume is amusing, and in some degree useful.

The tedious sameness of a voyage, is succeeded by the agreeable scene, which opens on the arrival at Palermo. The public walk called the *Marina*, is thus described.

‘Our hotel is situated near the northern wall of the city, and a short distance from the gate, *Porto Felice*, through which we walked to the *Marina*. We stopped a moment to admire the noble building which forms this gate of happiness; so named from its opening to the *Marina*, a place devoted to healthful exercise and amusement. It is ornamented with columns, and rich sculpture, in white and fine marble. The

\* By manufactures we mean those articles which have gone through every process of labour to fit them for immediate use.

Marina is a promenade extending along the beach about a mile, having a broad and elevated flag walk near the water for foot passengers, and behind this a space for carriages. It is so situated as to command a view of the bay, and to receive the sea breeze. It has no shade trees, but is ornamented with two fountains, which supply an abundance of water, and are both surrounded by statues of marble.

‘ To this place the Palermitans repair to meet their friends, to display themselves or their equipages, and to view a scene of gayety and splendor, which is every day renewed. We walked to the garden, which is entirely ornamented, and contains a collection of the trees and plants of this delightful climate. We entered at a large gate, which, like the Porto Felice, attracted our attention as a magnificent building. It is ornamented with sculptured marble of various kinds. In its design it has a relation to the shaded avenues to which it opens, and its architectural proportions give it an elegant appearance when viewed from any part of the garden. A straight broad walk led us to the centre of the enclosure, where there is a large fountain springing from an artificial rock, and flowing into a marble basin about 150 feet in circumference. Groups of beautiful statues are placed near this fountain, as well as in various parts of the garden, but it would be vain for me to attempt to describe in detail its decorations and ornaments. This garden being the first of the kind I had ever seen, I walked through its avenues and enjoyed its shades with unmixed delight. The evergreens predominate so much among the shrubs, that the small number of deciduous trees are not at all observed. In the arrangement of the shades, and the distribution of the aisles, there is a geometrical precision which did not strike us agreeably. Nothing can be imagined more beautiful than the fountains and the groups of statues. The graceful forms, and pure whiteness of the sculptured marble intermingled with the verdure of the orange, the cypress, the box, and other beau-



tiful trees, forms a combination of singular elegance. We lingered long in this fairy field. When we returned to the Marina, the expected company had begun to collect. The people were well dressed, and the equipages confirmed the glowing descriptions we had previously received of them. While we were dazzled with the gayety and splendor of the crowd, we were shocked and astonished to observe the groups of poor and miserable wretches, who, in the most pitiful and importunate manner implored charity as if they were ready to perish with want. Knowing us, from our dress and manner to be strangers they persevered in their cries for charity, and followed close to us until we were compelled to give them something. Though the weather is extremely mild, these half clothed beings, standing about and sitting without exercise, feel the want of fire. Many of them carry a small earthen vessel in their hands, containing ignited coals, by which they warm their fingers. When the sun shines, they collect on the south side of walls, and employ themselves in lousing one another; an operation which, however disgusting, seems to be very much needed. I never before saw such pitiful forms of wretchedness, filth and misery.'

The active curiosity of our author, keeps him constantly employed during his abode at Palermo, in visiting the public places of the city, and in making excursions to palaces in the environs. The miserable condition of the *Lazzaroni*, a large class of poor who are almost wholly without employment, and support a miserable life principally by beggary, is an object which is painfully striking in this city. The principal street, called the *Via Toledo*, is a mile in length, and presents a magnificent range of houses, five stories high. It is crossed at right angles in the centre, by another splendid street called the *Corso*. At their intersection is an octangular open space, in the midst of which is a superb fountain. Other fountains in different parts of the city, furnish an abundant supply of water. Palermo is one mile square, in extent,

and contains a population of 200,000 souls. To the south and west extends a fertile and picturesque district called *Il Colla*, ornamented by many palaces and villas. To the north-east, at the distance of eight miles is situated the village and palaces of *Labagaria*. *Mont Reale*, situated on a mountain of the same name, and containing five or six thousand inhabitants, lies seven miles from Palermo, and, together with part of its neighbourhood, furnishes a place of retreat to the citizens, during the heat of summer.

Our traveller, after remaining more than three weeks at Palermo, embarks on a voyage to Catania, on the eastern coast of Sicily. He gives us the following account of Scylla and Charybdis.

‘ On the morning of the 24th instant I embarked in the *Hero*, Capt. Keith, for Catania. The weather was favourable, and at 12 o'clock last night we were so near the *Faro* of Messina, that our Palermitan pilot thought it prudent to *lie to* until day light. We are now, 6 o'clock, in sight of Scylla.

5 P. M. ‘ The wind was fair and we made for the *Faro* under easy sail. When about three miles distant we could perceive the roughness and agitation of the water. The Rock Scylla is on the Calabrian side. It is a steep promontory projecting into the sea. The vortex Charybdis is on the Sicilian side near Messina, and five or six miles from Scylla. Opposite Scylla, at the distance of three miles is a low point, on the extremity of which is a round light tower by the Greeks called *Faro*. Hence the name of the pass. On the same side we observed a cluster of fishermen's huts, and on the summit of Scylla a fortress covering a small village. The Calabrian shore is mountainous and more bold than the opposite coast. Messina is situated twelve miles from Scylla, at the southern extremity of the *Faro*. We felt a degree of triumph as we entered this celebrated pass, on account of



our perfect security. It presents no terrors to modern navigators.

'The whirlpools effected us sensibly, but with a little exertion at the helm the ship kept steadily in its course. The ripple of the water at the edge of the vortices, resembles a strong tide flowing into a smooth river. At a distance of three miles we could hear the surf breaking against Scylla.'

The personification of Scylla appears as ancient as any part of the Greek fables, as it is mentioned by Homer, but it is to Ovid we owe the poetical, and probably popular account of the origin of this story. According to this poet, Glaucus, a sea-god, in love with Scylla, a sea-nymph, who rejected his addresses, sought the aid of the enchantress Circe, in order to win, by charms, the affections of his mistress. Circe, being smitten with Glaucus, endeavoured to transfer his passion to herself, but not succeeding, and being inflamed with revenge, poured a poisonous juice into the waters in which Scylla was wont to bathe, the effect of which was such as to change the lower half of the nymph into dogs. It is easy to see that it was this which furnished Milton with part of his description of Sin.

————— 'about her middle round  
A cry of hell-hounds never ceasing bark'd  
With wide Cerberean mouths full loud, and rung  
A hideous peal.'

Scylla, in revenge for her transformation, destroyed some of the companions of Ulysses, the favourite of Circe.

————— 'fierce Scylla stoop'd to seize her prey,  
Stretch'd her dire jaws, and swept six men away;  
Chiefs of renown! loud echoing shrieks arise:  
I turn, and view them quiv'ring in the skies;  
They call, and aid with outstretch'd arms implore:  
In vain they call! those arms are stretch'd no more.'

*Hom. Odys.*

Catania, anciently called Catana, was founded soon after Syracuse, by a colony from Chalcis. Hiero transferred its inhabitants to Leontium, repopled the city, and its district by colonies from Peloponnesus and Syracuse, and gave it the name of Etna, from the neighbouring mountain. Pindar celebrates, in one of his odes, the benefits conferred by Hiero on this city. It has suffered several times from earthquakes, and particularly from one in 1693, which destroyed 9,000 persons. An eruption of Mount Etna, in 1669 buried a great part of the city.

On his arrival at Catania Dr. James engages a guide who attends him to the principal objects of curiosity, which are the cathedral, the museum, unfinished palaces, and gardens of the prince de Biscaris, the cabinet of the Chevalier Giovanni, the Benedictine convent of St. Nicoloso, with its fine organ, and a large and well aired hospital. An excursion to Etna, was found to be impracticable, on account of winter being so far advanced. The following are some of the observations on the city.

‘We went through the principal streets, which are wide and extremely well built. The largest street leads from the bay nearly west, and commands a view of the mountain and the sea. The city has an airy and cheerful appearance, and the glorious summit of Etna seems to shine into every avenue. The mountain is always before our eyes—the streets are wider, and the situation of the city better than that of Palermo. Sig. Lombardo is certain that no city in Italy is so magnificent, with the exception of “immortal Rome.”

‘The principal square is nearly in the centre of the city, and is ornamented with a large fountain, the basin of which is placed by the side of a pedestal which supports an elephant, sculptured out of a vast block of lava. It is of colossal dimensions and an admirable representation of the animal. The surface is left in its natural porous state without polish, so as to resemble the rough skin of the elephant. The tusks



are of white marble. The flag pavement under our feet was laid with square blocks of lava. No other stone is employed in buildings or walls.'

There are about 200 persons employed in a large manufactory of silk, the fabricks of which form one of the principal articles of exportation.

This article was first introduced into Sicily, by count Roger, whose lieutenant, on capturing Athens, Thebes, and Corinth, from the eastern empire, sent to Sicily a number of persons skilled in the manufacture of silk, whom Roger accommodated in a large building at Palermo, and afterwards excepted on a restoration of his prisoners to the Greek emperor.

After about a week's stay at Catania, Dr. James returns in the same vessel to Palermo. On his voyage he sails by the Lipari islands, one of which, Strombolo, contained a volcano, in a state of activity, ejecting its lava at intervals attended with loud explosions, to a great height in the air. This volcano, we are informed by Dr. James, possesses the peculiarity of having been continually active, from the earliest periods of its history.

We notice a favourable trait in the character of the inhabitants of Palermo.

'Many of the priests are regularly instructed in medicine, and gratuitous care of the sick forms a part of their parochial duty. It is a custom among the higher orders of gentlemen, to watch with the poorest sick, and to do menial offices for them in the hospitals, as a religious humiliation. In addition to the personal aid they afford, their example makes it a fashion to practice kindness and humanity. I am confirmed in the observation made at Catania, that the sick are well treated in Sicily.'

Dr. James partakes of the gayeties of the carnival at Palermo, and visits the shrine of St. Rosalia, its patron saint, whose chapel is situated on the summit of Mount Peregrino, near

the city. This lady, the daughter of king William the good, one of the Norman princes, and celebrated for her accomplishments and early piety, is said to have retired to Mount Peregrino, for the purposes of solitary devotion, and to have perished, from neglecting too long the calls of nature. From the summit of the mountain, Etna is visible, though distant more than one hundred miles.

Near Palermo is a Capuchin convent, beneath the church of which is a vault, where human bodies are preserved, after a long process of drying, by heat. Dr. James saw subjected to this preparation, the corpse of an aged Sicilian prince who had died a few days before, of excessive joy, as was said, on hearing of the marriage of his only daughter to a Spanish nobleman at Naples.

After receiving the civilities of the prince d'Aci, at his gardens near Palermo, and visiting the palace of the prince Butera, which is described as very magnificent, Dr. James closes his second residence of about three weeks longer, at this city, and sails from Sicily for Naples. 'The town of Naples, anciently Parthenope, and afterwards Neapolis was founded by the Greeks, whose language prevailed in the neighbourhood till a late period, as appears by the manuscripts discovered at Herculaneum. It was for a long time in alliance with the Romans, and was so strongly fortified that Hannibal declined besieging it. Virgil informs us, that he resided here when he wrote the Georgicks:

' Illo Virgilium me tempore dulcis alebat  
Parthenope, studiis florentem ignobilis oti:'

While I at Naples pass my peaceful days,  
Affecting studies of less noisy praise.

The vicinity of Naples was a favourite winter retreat for the opulent Romans, who adorned the coast with magnificent buildings. This city remained for a long time attached to



the eastern empire; but experienced, at last, the successive sway of the Lombards, Saracens, Normans, Germans, French, and Spaniards, in whose hands it at present remains, as the metropolis of the kingdom of Naples. On his arrival at Naples, Dr. James becomes busily engaged in visiting the *Studio*, or principal gallery in which is collected many of the spoils of Herculaneum and Pompeii:—and the extensive catacombs, in the vicinity, which are not at present used as places of burial.

The grotto of Pausilippo, is a remarkable horizontal excavation, near a mile in length, through a mountain of that name, and used as a road. Its height varies from 40 to 50 feet, and it is lighted by lamps, and by two oblique perforations through the mountain.

Dr. James thus describes the approach to Pozzuoli, (the ancient Putcoli,) near Naples, and some of the objects in the vicinity.

‘ A few small cottages which we noticed scattered in this delightful solitude, with a little aid of the imagination, may be supposed the romantic retreats of rural happiness and innocence. The approach to Pozzuoli is one of those beautiful portions of earth which are indescribable. What invisible spirit has chosen it, I know not, but surely some being more pure than man, watches here, over the graves of millions, the ruins of cities and the regions of silence and oblivion. Before us is the site of ancient Baiae, now a waste—the cape of Misenus—the Elysian fields—the shores of Avernus, and the hill that conceals the grotto of the Cumean Sybil! When the name of England was unknown, and the existence of our country had not been conjectured by civilized men, those whom England has been proud to imitate, and America has called illustrious, have stood, perhaps, where we stand, and wondered at the quiet sea, the glorious sky, and the varied landscape!

‘ Having reached a rocky point on the sea shore, we came suddenly in sight of Pozzuoli, and stopped on the gentle rise which overlooks it, to examine the ruins of a temple of Diana, and of an ancient amphitheatre. If we had required any further evidence that man existed here two thousand years ago, these ruins furnished it; but the rocks, the earth, and the ocean, seem to me as authentic monuments of the lapse of ages.

‘ We ascended the gradual steep a little farther, to the Solfatara. It is shaped like an extinguished crater, which it doubtless is, and contains five or six acres. As we descended into it, we followed a foot path through a low growth of evergreen shrubs. The shrubs only extend around the margin of the crater; the bottom is covered with crystals of sulphur, and so hot, that I could feel it burning under my feet. A vapour rises slowly from the earth, but without intermission; of a suffocating odour, and half conceals the

‘ singed bottom all involved

‘ With stench and smoke:’

‘ If Milton did not borrow his ideas of the aspect of the infernal regions from this place, he has nearly described it, when he supposes the prince of darkness to stand upon the firm brimstone.

‘ On dry land

‘ He lights, if it were land, that ever burned

‘ With solid, as the lake with liquid fire:’

The following is a pitiable trait of poverty and wretchedness.

‘ I rode back to Naples just after sun-set. The vine dressers, ‘ their labour done,’ had collected around their miserable hovels, with less appearance of comfort and content than I expected. Nature is so lavish of her provisions in this delightful country, that one would suppose idleness itself could hardly reduce men to starvation and want. Yet these labourers



were covered with rags, and almost without exception ran toward us: instead of bowing or accosting us civilly, as American labourers would have done, they begged for money.'

(to be continued.)

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ART. IX.—*Miscellaneous Articles.*

*British notices of American Literature.*

After the disgust excited by reading the stupid calumnies of the Antijacobin and the spiteful sarcasms of the Quarterly Review, the insolent detraction of the Edinburgh Review, and the faint praise of the Monthly: it is quite refreshing and agreeable to meet with such honest acknowledgments, and liberal views as are contained in the following article from 'Constable's Edinburgh Magazine'—a work of great interest and ability and very superior to its rival, Blackwood's, which is now republished in this country.

*'Specimens of American Literature.'*

'We have too long been in the habit of despising the literature of the Americans, and have rather unwisely set down their backwardness, in that particular, to the score of a defective genius. There are many reasons, however, which may have readily prevented them from coming into competition with the great writers of this country. Using the same language with ourselves, it is not at all unnatural that they should have been satisfied with the entertainment which we could afford them, without putting their own invention to the rack. There is a diffidence, too, in genius, which often prevents it from coming forward, where it must encounter the rivalry of tried and acknowledged excellence; and the silence of the Americans is no proof that they have not been secretly meditating on the splendid energies which have been exhibited before them. Perhaps we ought rather to draw the contrary

conclusion. Even the want of taste which may appear in their occasional literary efforts, and the defects in their imitations, are nothing more than might be expected in their circumstances. It is long before the tongue of a child can get round its words. If we are not much mistaken, something of the same kind is to be found in the History of Scottish Literature. For many years it was completely repressed by the ascendancy of English genius. But are we to suppose, that, during that period, the seeds were not in secret operation, from which that harvest of glory has since sprung, which has now fairly placed us on a level with the sister kingdom? There were then doubtless many scholars among us, and many men of genius, who read, and admired, and thought,

Vixerunt fortes ante Agamemnona  
Multi, &c.

but who scarcely ventured to write, or, if they did, it was to be expected that they would labour for expression, and sometimes be awkward, and at other times, perhaps, turgid. But when Scotchmen once found free use of their pens, England soon learnt that they were by no means inclined to hide their talent in a napkin. We strongly suspect that America is at this moment passing through a similar noviciate; and we apprehend the time is not far distant when her genius too will be put forth, into action. Many of her most promising youths have, for these several years past, been travelling in all directions, storing up all the treasures of modern literature, and even drawing the inspiring



breath of Greece and Italy. They have collected great and various libraries in their course,—they have become acquainted with the most eminent men in the regions through which they have passed,—and have, no doubt, in imagination, already measured their own strength with theirs. Every thing has aided to bring them into contact with all the dead and all the living genius in the world; and we may be assured that they have an ambition to excel in the department of letters no less than in arts or in arms.

It is with great interest, under this persuasion, that we look into every American publication, however inconsiderable, which seems to give any promise of the coming Avatar. An amusing little work has just been put into our hands, called the Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Esq. published in the present year at New York. It has fully confirmed our idea; and although there are in it, no doubt, several marks of the childhood of literature, such as, affected imitations of the weaker and more sickly parts of our pathetic writers, still it shows, in many passages, an aspiration after an excellence which is by no means unattained. It proves to us distinctly, that there is *mind* working in America, and that there are materials, too, for it too work upon, of a very singular and romantic kind. Mrs. Grant had before shown us, in her fine spirited sketch in the *American Lady*, that the reminiscences of that country might at least go 'sixty years back, and that, when we got to that period, we came into a very peculiar character of society, almost as curious and interesting as any thing described in Waverly. In the work before us there is a short fanciful tale, which gives us a notion of what may be made of such materials; and we shall not scruple in a future Number to lay it entire before our readers. At present we rather prefer to give them the opening of this attractive little work. No

one will dispute but that it is written with feeling and elegance. There may be some slight traces of the affectation above mentioned; but we cannot help thinking that it opens a view of American genius, which is not only very amiable, but is full of promise. England and America are both at this moment supplied, in a great measure, with a literature of Scotch manufacture. We should not be much surprised were we to live to see the day when we, in our turn shall be gaping for new novels and poems from the other side of the Atlantic, and when, in the silence of our own bards and romancers, we shall have Ladies of the Lake from Ontario, and Tales of My Landlord from Goose-creek, as a counterpart to those from Gandercleugh. For our parts, we have no kind of aversion to the augury; and we cannot but regard it as a most paltry and contemptible littleness, quite unworthy of the maternal majesty of England, not to look with an eye of love and delight upon all that is promising in the rising genius of America. It *will* rise, we may rest assured, and come into day, with whatever temper we may be pleased to regard it. But we have that conviction of the fund of good-nature and generosity in the English mind, that, whenever any work with the stamp of eminent merit is issued from the American mint, it will be hailed in the parent country with a glow of eager enthusiasm. Notwithstanding the dull sarcasms and stupid prejudices out of which Scotland was so long forced to fight her way, the English were yet not backward in acknowledging the excellence of our distinguished writers. Johnson himself was obliged more than once to growl out his approbation, and he gave it honestly and with some degree of heartiness when he did give it. Now there is not a little distinction attached to the very name of a Scotchman, and we feel that our neighbours honour us because we have from our birth



breathed the same air with Hume, Robertson, Smith, Stewart, Blair, Alison, Burns, Scott, and Campbell. The literary glory of America is yet to come; but we doubt not that it is coming, and we think we can discern the dawn streaking the horizon even in the slight sketches we are now about to present to our readers.

The *Monthly Review*, for December, notices the republication in England of Mr. Vaux's, 'Life of Benezet'—abstains from all commendation of the work, but confines its censure to the 'arrangement of the materials.' The glory however is conceded to Benezet of having been the earliest promoter of the abolition, and the prompter of Wilberforce and Clarkson in their honourable efforts. 'In this field of humanity he was the *first* labourer.' He *first* raised the voice of mercy against this iniquitous traffic, &c. a meed of praise which lately was denied him by the 'Eclectic Review.'

The *Eclectic Review*, for January also has an article upon the 'Sketch Book,' with copious quotations. 'This publication,' it commences, 'we *guess* may be taken as a rather favourable specimen of American fugitive literature.' The 'Voyage,' is called 'a little too *fine*.' Rip Van Winkle 'a characteristic and well told legend.' This is almost all of *opinion* expressed upon the work—the writer then remarks upon the essay on 'English writers in America.' 'It must be granted that the people of the United States have been represented to us, of late, by travellers of an inferior class; men either of little education, or degraded character, or who were raving under the half insanity of some political infatuation. It is certain also that these representations or misrepresentations have been inverted, exaggerated and promulgated with more industry than conscience, and that they have been received, we might say devoured, among us with that sort of indiscriminate readiness which be-

trays the influence, both of sordid fear and malignant agitation in the public mind.'

The London Literary Gazette of Decr. 11th. contains a few remarks on Mr. Walsh's *Appeal*; concluding with the following *lucid* and *accurate* sentences: 'It is a contrast to Bristed's able work, and though exceedingly prolix and exceedingly bigotted to one side of the question, full of matters that are not entertaining. In one sentence we can characterize the author 'he justifies the slave trade.'

*Childhood of Madame de Stael.*  
(from the 'Sketch' of her Life, &c.  
by Mde. de Saussure.)

'Mademoiselle Necker, when an infant, was full of cheerfulness, vivacity, and frankness. Her complexion was rather brown, but animated, and her large black eyes already sparkled with kindness and intelligence. The carresses of her father, who incessantly encouraged the child to prattle, were a little at variance with the more rigid plan of Madame Necker; but the applauses excited by her sallies encouraged her continually to utter new ones; and already she answered the perpetual pleasantries of Mr. Necker with that mixture of gayety and tenderness, which so frequently mark her conversation with him.'

'Mademoiselle Necker seems to have had a premature youth instead of infancy. In every thing related to me on this subject, I find only a single circumstance bearing the stamp of that age, and even in this the propensities of talent are observable. In her childhood she amused herself with cutting out paper kings and queens, and making them act a tragedy. She used to hide herself to enjoy this amusement, which was forbidden her: and hence she acquired the only trick she was ever known to have, that of turning about between her fingers a little flag of paper or leaves.

'To give an idea at once of Mademoiselle Necker at the age of eleven



years, and the house of her mother at that period, I shall quote a few passages from a delightful piece on the infancy of Madame de Stael, written by a lady of great wit, Madame Rilliet, then Madame Huber, who was always very intimate with her. The excellent education of Madame Huber, and an ancient family intimacy, having led Madame Necker to be desirous of her becoming the friend of her daughter, she relates her first interview with Mademoiselle Necker, the transports of the latter at the idea of having a companion, and the promises she made of loving her forever.

“She spoke to me with a warmth and facility which were already eloquence, and made a great impression on me . . . . . We did not play like children: she asked me immediately what lessons I learned, whether I were acquainted with any foreign languages, and if I went frequently to the play. When I told her that I had been only three or four times, she expressed her regret, promised that I should go often with her, and added, that at our return we would write down the subject of the pieces, and note what had appeared striking to us, as was her custom . . . .

“She said to me afterwards: We will write to each other every morning. We entered the drawing-room. By the side of Mr. Necker’s arm-chair was a little wooden stool, on which his daughter seated herself, obliged to sit very upright. Scarcely had she taken her customary place, when three or four old persons came up to her and accosted her with the tenderest regard. One of them, who had on a little bob wig took her hands in his, and held them a long time, conversing with her as if she had been five-and-twenty. This was Abbe Raynal. The others were Messrs. Thomas and Marmontel, the Marquis of Pesay and Baron von Grimm. When we sat down to table, you should have seen how attentive she was!

She uttered not a word, yet she seemed as if speaking in her turn, all her flexible features displayed so much expression. Her eyes followed the looks and motions of those who spoke: you would have said she seized their ideas before she heard them. She was mistress of every subject, even politics, which at that time had become one of the leading topics of conversation . . . . .

“After dinner a great deal of company came in. Every one on coming up to Mr. Necker had something to say to his daughter, either complimenting or joking her . . . . She answered all with ease and elegance: they took pleasure in attacking her, embarrassing her, exciting in her that little imagination which already appeared so brilliant. The men most distinguished for their talents were those who were most eager to make her talk. They asked an account of what she was reading, pointed out fresh subjects to her, and gave her a taste for study, by conversing with her on what she had learned, or what she had not!”

“She composed eulogies and portraits. At fifteen she made extracts from the Spirit of Laws, with remarks. Abbe Raynal wished to prevail on her to write something on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes for his great work. This inclination for writing was not encouraged by Mr. Necker, which nothing but her decided excellence could have induced him to pardon, for he was naturally averse to female authors.”

*Illumination by means of electric light.*—Professor Meinacke, of Halle, has just succeeded in producing a brilliant illumination by means of electric light, and with the aid of an artificial air inclosed in glass tubes. As the electric sparks propagate themselves to infinity, the Professor thinks it will be possible to light up a whole city with a single electrifying machine, and at a very trifling expense, by the adoption and probable improvement of the apparatus he has already invented.